Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

Theory and principles

88–255 Brighouse, T.R.P. (Oxford Local Education Authority). Modern languages. *Modern Languages* (London), **68,** 4 (1987), 257–62.

A close examination of the current state of modern languages in English schools shows: (1) we need a change in the learning target of modern languages which ought to be clearly recognised; (2) the present system of learning in secondary schools is inappropriate to the task; (3) the assessment system is ineffective – outside the schooling system but imposed upon it – and fails to match the learning which teachers and pupils have decided to pursue.

A programme of change is proposed. Perhaps 50 % of language teachers should be redeployed to the present primary schools and work intensively with pre-school children, five-, six- and seven-year-olds in particular, when capacity to learn languages is greatest. Family language workshops could be set up so that other members of the family could learn together on a clearly communicative and oral basis in conjunction with the primary schools' home/school programme. The remaining language teachers could be involved in a new form of alternative, supplementary schooling teaching intensive language courses which youngsters of any age could attend to practise their language skills. These would take place after school or in school holidays. In the inner cities the range of languages taught by these two methods should be widened by drawing on the many bilingual children we have. The EEC should devise a strategy to provide resources for the many English civic links involving France, Italy, Spain and Germany in particular so that each youngster in a twin town should be entitled to some sort of exchange.

88–256 Brumfit, Christopher (U. of Southampton). Concepts and categories in language teaching methodology. *AILA Review* (Madrid), **4** (1987), 25–31.

For teachers, methodological categories must be relatable to current theory as well as directly interpretable in classroom strategies. Categories may, however, act as blinkers rather than as telescopes, as with the traditional division of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing), which has interfered with teachers' ability to consider language as genuine communication. An alternative set might be: conversation/discussion, comprehension (either speech or writing), extended writing, extended speech. Likewise the division of lesson plans into 'presentation' and 'practice' stages or of writing exercises into 'controlled, guided and free – in each case, the ordering has a learning theory built in which conflicts which current views of the nature of acquisition. Intermediate categories may be needed, such as the distinction between accuracy and fluency and between text-text study and text-world study. Categories in applied linguistics should make sense to practicing teachers: ideas which do not catch on reveal a mismatch between the practises of one set of professionals (applied linguists) and another (teachers). Teachers deal with individuals and theirs is the ultimate responsibility for courses of action in the classroom. Researchers have a duty to address conceptual confusion in terms which make sense of the experience of teachers, as well as of researchers and theoreticians.

88–257 Klein, Eberhard. Ein Netzwerk-Modell für die Erstellung didaktischer und pädagogischer Grammatiken. [A network model for the construction of didactic and pedagogical grammars.] *Die Neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main, FRG), **86,** 6 (1987), 517–30.

A brief critical review is provided of the major features underlying models of didactic/pedagogical grammars and their inherent shortcomings. Five models are delineated: didactic/pedagogical grammars viewed as direct applications of linguistic grammars, as eclectic or simplified versions of linguistic grammars, as linear phase models, as 'filter'-models and those developed on the basis of the various factors involved in foreign language teaching/learning. In contrast to these earlier models it is argued that separate notions of 'didactic grammar' and 'pedagogical grammar' are required. The derivational processes behind such grammars are broadly sketched in. A number of pedagogical postulates are held to provide further input, in addition to linguistic grammar, into didactic gram-

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mars. Further interim stages are said to be required, such as adaptation processes and considerations of the users of didactic grammars. It is further claimed that these relations, in particular, conversion tech-niques and adaptation processes, constitute integral elements in the construction of didactic grammars and are all ultimately interdependent.

88–258 Porcher, Louis (U. Sorbonne-Nouvelle). Simples propos d'un usager. [Some simple words of a (theory) user.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **66** (1987), 134–145.

Phonetics has been seen as having variable importance according to different schools of language teaching; at present the pendulum seems to be swinging back in its favour. There is in language teaching a tension between its immediate practical demands and its theoretical bases, each of which put forward viable and non-viable proposals. The two have to be brought face-to-face. In particular, language teaching has to prove itself scientifically, with precise statements of means and ends. Phonetics will find its proper place when proper consideration has been given to (1) the need for a breathing space to spread and digest new classroom practices, (2) eclecticism in practice, (3) eclecticism in training, (4) specific training in communication, (5) the analysis of student needs, (6) sociological factors, and (7) the role of information technology.

88–259 Richards, Jack C. Beyond methods: alternative approaches to instructional design in language teaching. *Prospect* (Adelaide, Australia), **3,** 1 (1987), 11–30.

Two approaches to instructional design in language teaching are contrasted. One, 'follow the method', reflects a top-down approach to teaching. Both the teacher and the learner are approached on the terms of the educational theorist, applied linguist, or curriculum planner. The assumptions or theory underlying the method provide the starting point for an instructional design which is subsequently imposed on teachers and learners, and an attempt is made to make the teacher's and learner's classroom behaviours match the specifications of the method. By contrast, the 'develop a methodology' approach is a 'bottom-up' approach, and starts from the observable processes of classroom teaching and learning. From this perspective, methodological principles and practices in language teaching are derived from two sources of information: (1) the study of effective teaching provides information about how effective teachers organise and deliver instruction. This relates to classroom management skills, and to the strategies teachers use to present instructional goals, structure learning tasks and activities, monitor learning and provide feedback on it; (2) the study of effective learning provides information about the learning strategies effective learners apply to the process of using and learning a second and foreign language.

Data of this kind can be used to train teachers in more effective teaching practices and help develop more effective learning strategies in learners. Relevant concerns in methodology focus not on the search for the best method, but rather on the circumstances and conditions under which more effective teaching and learning are accomplished.

88–260 Spolsky, Bernard (Bar-Ilan U.). The place of linguistics in a general theory of second language learning and in language teaching. *AILA Review* (Madrid), **4** (1987), 32–43.

It is not reasonable to look for direct relations between linguistic theory and teaching; instead we must separately consider the relations between: (i) linguistic theory and second-language theory, and (ii) second-language learning theory and second-language pedagogy. On (i), the audio-lingual attempt to use separate theories of language (structuralist) and learning (behaviourist) has been discredited, and Chomsky has shown the need to consider the two together. The pursuit of this aim has, however, been hampered because linguistic theorists have often limited themselves to sentence level description and ignored sociolinguistic variation; even those concerned with communicative competence have not recognised the ultimate indivisibility of rules of grammar and rules of use. On (ii), it has been widely supposed that the task of a learning theory is to provide a teaching method. In reality, a theory can only seek to account for the variations in success among learners and to illuminate the possibilities and pitfalls of various methods in various situations. Spolsky

deplores the unidirectionality of influence between theory and practice, and suggests that theorists should be more willing to take their agenda from the practical problems of teaching.

Psychology of language learning

88–261 Abuhamdia, Zakaria A (U. of Jordan). Neurobiological foundations for foreign language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg, FRG), **25**, 3 (1987), 203–11.

This paper adopts the view that the left hemisphere of the brain is dominant for language comprehension and production functions. After a survey of research in this field it concludes that (1) the language dominant hemisphere does not function as a monolithic unit; rather, it functions in separate sections which are co-ordinated by different processes; (2) competence in L2 learning may therefore vary from one aspect of language components to another. Competence in separate tasks varies with age; (3) the existence of a foreign accent seems to be related to the early maturation and myelination of the Golgi type I neuronal cells which are preponderant in the language motor area: these cells lose their plasticity early in life, and it is only in the early period that one or more languages may be acquired without a foreign accent (i.e. natively); (4) even when the perception of L2 phonology is native-like, production will be hindered by the absence of the proper synapse; (5) foreign accent seems to be a function of the age of the learner, in so far as age and neurological maturation, growth and differentation can be seen as synonymous. Support for these conclusions comes from pathological cases of aphasia. Adult L2 learners, like conduction aphasic patients, have greater difficulty in imitating native-speaker pronunciation than in comprehending native speech. Their lack of neural plasticity renders their resources inadequate to match what is perceived, processed and finally produced. Adult L2 learners are 'resource limited' rather than 'data limited'. Young foreign language learners, on the other hand, are 'data limited' but not 'resource limited'.

88–262 Armbruster, Bonnie B. and others (U. of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign). Does text structure/summarisation instruction facilitate learning from expository test? *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22**, 3 (1987), 331–46.

Fifth-grade students were instructed in a particular text structure to see whether it would improve their ability to learn from similarly structured social studies material. Eighty-two fifth-grade students were assigned either to a structure training group, which received direct instruction in recognising and summarising a conventional text structure (problem solution), or to a traditional training group, which read and discussed answers to questions about social studies passages. As measured by responses to a main-idea essay question and by written summaries of two passages, students' ability to abstract the macrostructure of problem solution text read independently was improved by the structure training.

88–263 Bialystok, Ellen (York U., Canada). Words as things: development of word concept by bilingual children. *Studies in Second Language Learning* (Bloomington, Ind), **9**, 2 (1987), 133–40.

This article describes three studies comparing the lexical processing skills evinced by monolingual and bilingual children; in the first, learners were asked to segment French sentences and random strings, containing mono/bi/polysyllabic and double morpheme lexical items, into separate words. The results apparently indicated that variations in word type (i.e. the inclusion of 'difficult' words) did not disrupt the performance of the task by the bilingual group, though this was not the case the monolingual learners. The second study involved asking children (by means of 'means something like'/'sounds something like' association tasks) to make judgements, based on either the form or meaning of a word, in 'No Context', 'Supporting Context' and 'Antagonistic Context' situations. The findings here seemed to support the conclusion that form and meaning compete for the attention of monolingual children because their separation is cognitively less well established than it is with bilingual children, who are not thus distracted. The third study exploited the classic *sun-moon* transposition problem (Piaget) as an indicator of word arbitrariness; bilingual children seemed better able to treat words as variable referents for familiar objects, and to speculate more effectively on the consequences of altering their usual labels.

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88-264 Boeschoten, Hendrik E. and Verhoeven, Ludo Th. (Tilburg U.).
Language-mixing in children's speech: Dutch language use in Turkish discourse.
Language Learning (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 2 (1987), 191–215.

Data on Dutch-Turkish language-mixing behaviour of Turkish children growing up in The Netherlands are presented and analysed. The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which the descriptive models developed in research on language-mixing are generalisable. It was found that the functional characteristics of the children's language-mixing are compatible with earlier results. Structural analysis of the data, however, yielded results that shed considerable doubt on the universal applicability of surface structure constraint rules for sentence-internal language-mixing.

88-265 Boyle, Joseph P. (Chinese U. of Hong Kong). Sex differences in listening vocabulary. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 2 (1987), 273–84.

Not enough attention has been paid in the past to the variable of sex differences in language-learning research. This may be because it is taken as proven that girls are superior to boys in language ability. Although the majority of evidence does favour this conclusion, there is one area of language ability in which boys seem to be superior to girls, even in view of overall female superiority in language proficiency. This area is the comprehension of heard vocabulary.

Evidence from first-language studies prompted an experiment with second-language subjects: two sets of Chinese college students ($n = 285$ and 205). Ten tests were used to establish general language proficiency, and two tests of listening vocabulary were included in the battery. With both sets of subjects, the females were superior in general language proficiency, but the males had higher mean scores in both tests of listening vocabulary.

The difficulties of conducting such an experiment are discussed, notably the problem of constructing satisfactory listening vocabulary tests. Reasons for the phenomenon of male superiority in this select area of language ability are suggested, namely that mothers apparently respond more to male infants' vocalisation than to females', thus giving them more very early practice in listening, and that boys in a male culture have a wider experience of life and interact verbally over a wider range of subjects than girls, which may account for their broader recognition vocabulary.

88-266 Chandrasegaran, Antonia (National U. of Singapore). An exploratory study of EL2 students' revision and self-correction skills. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **17**, 2 (1986), 26–40.

'Revision' is defined in this article as the activity of reviewing written text with the aim of modifying and correcting it so as to produce grammatically acceptable, coherent discourse. In the latter case, the ways in which learners identify/correct such text malfunctions and PRIs (Problems of Reader Interpretability) as inappropriate register and ambiguity of reference are considered.

The current study aimed to identify what types of error EL2 students could self-correct (1) independently, (2) when they assume the role of 'audience', listening to their writing read back to them, and (3) when teachers identify errors of which they were previously unaware.

Essays produced by 10 first-year university students provided the input for this analysis, and learners were subjected to an interview reflecting the three correction phases already mentioned. The results [tabular data] revealed that students in this sample were capable of detecting and altering about a quarter of the defects in their written work (mostly at the 'surface feature' as opposed to PRI level), and it seemed that external (e.g. teacher) stimuli were necessary for a student to maximise his/her Monitor. In particular, it was felt that explicit demonstration by teachers of how to sequence information and achieve textual cohesion/coherence would be valid, as would 'intervention' discussions at various stages in the composition process.

88–267 de Keyser, Robert M. (Belgian National Science Foundation and Catholic U. of Louvain). *Individual differences in first language acquisition and some educational implications. ITL* (Louvain), **73** (1986), 1–26.

Neither individual cognitive predisposition nor language input seem to be a sufficient explanation of the individual differences evident in first-language acquisition. Differences observed are a corollary of the discrepancy between competence in bottom–up processing and communicative demands. As these demands vary with social class, parental interaction style, and the child's subjective perception of situational constraints, the individual differences in question will inevitably correlate with these variables. The difference between bottom–up and top–down processing is important not only when it comes to matching individual learning styles with existing teaching methods, but also from a more general perspective. To what extent do foreign-language learners use bottom–up and top–down processing for communication? To what extent is this use determined by their cognitive predisposition, the instructional programme, or their interaction? Is learning a foreign language in the native-speaking environment different in this respect? Questions of this kind require a research methodology which differs radically from current paradigms (contractive analysis, error analysis, performance analysis, discourse analysis and so forth). These approaches are based on analysis of the linguistic *product*: a psycholinguistic model of foreign language production can only be based on the study of *processes* of use.

88–268 Dempster, Frank N. (U. of Nevada, Las Vegas). Effects of variable encoding and spaced presentations on vocabulary learning. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC). **79,** 2 (1987), 162–70.

The applicability of the encoding variability hypothesis and the spacing phenomenon to vocabulary learning was examined in five experiments. Encoding variability was manipulated by varying the number of potential retrieval routes to the word meanings, using a one-sentence context condition, a three-sentence context condition and a no-context (definitions-only) control condition. The spacing effect was evaluated by presenting each word with or without intervening words. The results provided no evidence that the opportunity to establish multiple retrieval routes by means of contextual information is helpful to vocabulary learning, a conclusion supported unequivocally by all five experiments. By contrast, spaced presentations yielded substantially higher levels of learning than did massed presentations. The results are discussed largely in terms of educational concerns, including the utility of the learning-from-context approach to vocabulary learning.

88–269 Ehri, Linnea C. and Wilce, Lee S. (U. of California, Davis). Does learning to spell help beginners learn to read words? *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22,** 1 (1987), 47–65.

This experiment examined whether teaching beginners to produce phonetic spellings improves their ability to read words. Kindergarten students who could name letters but could not spell words with consonant clusters were assigned either to an experimental group that was taught to spell or to a control group that practised matching letters to isolated sounds. According to posttest performances, spelling-trained subjects learned to read a set of words more effectively than controls. Their greater success was not because they had learned how to sound out and blend the words, but rather because they had become better at phonetic cue reading, which entails reading words by remembering associations between letters in spellings and sounds in pronunciations. Spelling training also improved phonetic segmentation and spelling recognition skills. Findings suggest the value of linking spelling instruction to reading instruction when children first begin learning to read.

88–270 Faerch, Claus and Kasper, Gabriele (U. of Aarhus). Procedural knowledge as a component of foreign language learners' communicative competence. *AILA Review* (Madrid), **3** (1986), 7–23.

Foreign language (FL) learners all have some degree of basic communicative competence in their native language (NL). Descriptions of 'language neutral' and 'language specific' aspects of such knowledge have typically concentrated on underlying lexical and idiomatic knowledge (declarative) and knowledge of how to use linguistic rules (procedural). Paralinguistic communication, pragmatic and discourse knowledge, and socio-interactional knowledge are all defined as declarative. Procedural knowledge can be divided into reception procedures, production procedures, conversational procedures, communication strategies, and learning procedures. Basic to the first four of these is the language users' ability to continually (re)assess the communicative situations in which they are involved in terms of pragmatically relevant contextual features. On this basis, they interpret their interlocutors' speech activity and organise their own.

In speech reception procedures, recipients' processing of data may move from the specific and concrete to the general and abstract (bottom-up) or vice versa (top-down). When the recipient does not know a lexical item in an incoming utterance, inferencing procedures are brought into play. Production procedures are responsible for the planning and execution of speech at all linguistic levels from articulation to discourse. A distinction has been proposed between 'planners', who delay speech until planning has been completed, and 'correctors', who initiate execution without foreseeing problems and have to self-correct. Another production procedure is that of pre-execution and post-execution monitoring, i.e. matching the speech product against originally formulated goals.

Conversational procedures involve knowing (i) how to express speech acts in socially appropriate ways, observing general principles of face-saving; (ii) how to connect sentences into 'text' by means of cohesive devices; (iii) how to perform discourse regulating functions; (iv) how to remove com-

munication blocks by means of repairs, i.e. corrections, reformulations or clarifications. Communication strategies (also termed 'strategic competence') are used to solve problems in the planning/execution as well as comprehension of speech (both FL and NL). Of possible relevance for communicative efficiency is the distinction between overt and covert strategies. In overt strategies, the language user's problem surfaces, whereas covert strategies, which are inherently face-saving, can lead to serious misunderstandings as the interlocutor is not alerted by any strategy markers. In language learning procedures, the learner forms a hypothesis using prior linguistic knowledge (NL or FL) or FL data. The learner then tests the hypothesis (*a*) receptively, by comparing it to FL input, (*b*) productively, assessing correctness from feedback, (*c*) metalingually, by consulting a native speaker, teacher or book, or (*d*) by eliciting uptake and repair as discourse continues. Some FL material lends itself to learning through imitation of a model; the material is not analysed but stored *en bloc* in memory. It only becomes available for spontaneous use when it is automatised, e.g. by extensive and varied practice.

Patterns of communicative competence within an educational setting are far more restricted than those outside the classroom. This problem can be addressed by trying to take the communicative needs of learners into account in course design (as in the Council of Europe's Threshold Level approach) or by accepting that the classroom cannot prepare for all conceivable communicative situations, and trying to foster dynamic aspects of communicative competence of practical use to learners. An analysis of a lively but teacher-centred English discussion lesson in a Danish school reveals how restricted this traditional type of classroom communication is in enabling learners to develop their procedural knowledge.

88–271 Faerch, Claus (Aarhus Sch. of Economics) **and Kasper, Gabriele** (U. of Aarhus). Perspectives on language transfer. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **18**, 2 (1987), 11–31.

A functional differentiation of transfer is proposed according to its activation in learning, reception, and production. Several parameters are suggested according to which transfer as a production procedure can be described: parameters relating to the transferred declarative first-language knowledge and its interaction with the learner's interlanguage

knowledge, as well as cognitive modes in which transfer procedures can operate in speech production.

To analyse transfer in speech production one needs production data which are recorded and transcribed in such a way that all performance features – verbal and non-verbal – are retained.

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Transfer in production is sensitive to the usual sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic constraints: the interlocutor, topic, discourse type, medium; as well as cognitive and affective factors pertaining to the speaker. Transferability has to be related to discourse context. If we wish to explore transferability as related to context variables, the cognitive or-ganisation of transferred first-language knowledge, or transfer types in terms of attention and auto-matisation, then we have to employ data types which provide a more direct access to learners' underlying knowledge and its activation. Different introspective and retrospective methods may be a step in the right direction.

88–272 Flege, James Emil (U. of Alabama at Birmingham). The instrumental study of L2 speech production: some methodological considerations. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 2 (1987), 285–96.

This article discusses the design and interpretation of instrumental phonetic studies of L2 speech pro-duction. The notion 'phonetic norm' plays a crucial role in many recent studies that examine acoustic dimensions such as the frequencies of F_1–F_3, vowel duration, or voice-onset time (VOT). The speech of L2 learners is evaluated to determine to what extent it diverges from the differing phonetic norms of L1 and L2, which are estimated from the speech of a small number of native speakers. It is advisable to use monolinguals to establish the L1 norms because L2 learning has been shown to affect L1 production. In initial stages of learning, L2 learners often produce words in L2 with L1 sounds: they do not modify phonetic dimensions when producing corres-ponding sounds in L1 and L2 phonetic norm. L2 learners with relatively greater experience in L2, on the other hand, generally approximate the phonetic norm of L2: the values of the phonetic dimensions being measured generally fall between the mean values representing the phonetic norms of L1 and L2.

88–273 Floyd, Pamela and Carrell, Patricia L. (Southern Illinois U.). Effects on ESL reading of teaching cultural content schemata. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 1 (1987), 89–108.

Research by Gatbonton and Tucker showed that due to cultural misunderstandings, EFL students drew incorrect assumptions when reading un-familiar texts; however, when provided with pertinent cultural information, their performance increased significantly. Similar findings were re-ported by Yousef. Steffensen, Joag-dev, and An-derson demonstrated that implicit cultural know-ledge pre-supposed by a test and the reader's own cultural background knowledge interact to make texts based on one's own culture easier to read and understand than syntactically and rhetorically equi-valent texts based on less familiar, more distant cultures. Johnson demonstrated that the cultural origin of a text has a greater effect on ESL reading comprehension than does linguistic complexity.

The related pedagogical question is: "Can we improve students' reading by helping them to build background knowledge on the topic prior to reading?" Available pedagogical research in English as a first language suggests an affirmative answer to this question. The present study investigated this question for English as a second language. Using pre- and posttests with experimental and control groups of intermediate-level ESL students, half of each group receiving syntactically more complex versions of the test passages than the other half, the experimental group was taught appropriate cultural background information between pre- and post-testing.

Results showed that by providing the students with first-hand experiential knowledge, reading comprehension, as measured by objective tests as well as by a free written recall test, was facilitated. Differences in the syntactic complexity showed no significant effect on ESL reading comprehension.

88–274 Fuller, Judith W. and Gundel, Jeanette K. (U. of Minnesota). Topic prominence in interlanguage. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 1 (1987), 1–18.

This study investigates the role of topic-comment structure in the acquisition of English as a second language by adults. Oral narratives, both native and interlanguage, from speakers of three highly topic-prominent languages (Chinese, Japanese, and Kor-ean) and three relatively less topic-prominent languages (Arabic, Farsi, and Spanish) were analy-sed. It was found that (1) there were no differences in topic-prominence in the English interlanguage narratives of speakers in the two groups and (2) the

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interlanguage narratives as a whole were more topic-prominent than native English, and intermediate in topic-prominence between topic-prominent and non-topic-prominent native language ages. These results support the hypothesis that second-language acquisition is, in general, characterised by an early topic-comment stage, independent of the learner's native language.

88–275 Gardner, R. C. (U. of Western Ontario) **and others.** Second language attrition: the role of motivation and use. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology* (Clevedon, Avon), **6,** 1 (1987), 29–47.

This study investigated the nature of second-language (French) skills lost by grade 12 students over the course of the summer vacation, and the role played by attitudes and motivation in promoting language achievement and language maintenance. The results demonstrated that students rated many of their skills somewhat weaker after the summer vacation, but these effects were more general for items dealing with understanding skills than for speaking skills, and somewhat intermediate for reading and writing skills. Comparisons on objective assessments appeared to indicate improvement over the summer months on some skills, except for grammatical accuracy, that decreased, but these were interpreted as quite probably reflecting measurement artifacts. Although the attitude and motivation measures correlated quite meaningfully with the various measures of French proficiency, they did not correlate with loss of skill as indexed by simple change scores. A causal modelling analysis indicated nonetheless that attitudes and motivation were implicated in second-language acquisition and retention, the latter primarily because motivational variables determine the extent to which individuals will make use of the second language during the summer period.

88–276 Hayes, Donald S. and others (U. of Maine). Media differences in children's story synopses: radio and television contrasted. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **78,** 5 (1986), 341–6.

To evaluate the relative effectiveness of two media for conveying narrative information, young children and adults were presented the same story via either television or radio. Subjects then retold the story to an adult from memory. Media differences were found, with children in the radio condition showing significantly more errors in comprehension and memory than children in the television condition. Both the erroneous inclusion of inaccurate story content and the distortion of actual story characteristics occurred more frequently for the purely aural than for the aural and visual. Although subjects in the radio condition showed greater recall of dialogue and sound effects than did subjects in the TV condition, the actual events recalled with dialogue or other auditory features tended not to be highly important to the overall theme.

88–277 Horner, David (British Inst., Paris). Acquisition, learning and the Monitor: a critical look at Krashen. *System* (Oxford), **15,** 3 (1987), 339–49.

Krashen's Monitor hypothesis has provoked widespread interest and debate. Essentially it posits a distinction between acquisition and learning, arguing that no interface exists between them. This article seriously examines this claim, looking at non-experimental evidence, studies in second-language learning and research into formula speech. The actual Monitor mechanism is then examined and found inadequate essentially because of the over-restrictiveness of the conditions necessary for its use. Alternative acquisition theories which allow both for an acquisition/learning interface and for Monitoring under less restrictive conditions are then examined. Finally, the 'communicative trigger' is proposed as the mechanism capable of promoting transfer between learnt and acquired knowledge.

88–278 Kezwer, Paula (North York Board of Education). The extroverted vs. the introverted personality and second language learning. *TESL Canada Journal* (Montreal), **5,** 1 (1987), 45–58.

This paper surveys the most important studies dealing with the influence of extroversion on second-language learning. Some studies show a clear correlation between extroversion and success

in second-language learning, others do not. Reasons for the discrepancies in the research results are the wide variety and dubious validity of the personality assessment instructions used; the nature of the tasks used to determine L2 proficiency; and the structure of classroom interaction. It does seem that extroversion has some bearing on classroom interaction, but more research is needed to separate the variables which may influence the effect of an extroverted personality.

Some classroom implications of the research are that teachers should encourage more reluctant students to participate more in class. Less extroverted students are more fairly assessed by testing for proficiency using measures of listening comprehension, reading and writing, as well as oral education procedures. Quieter students would benefit from communicating with native speakers, e.g. a limited English-speaking pupil is paired with a native English-speaking partner and they take it in turns to tutor each other in various tasks, alternating the roles of tutor and learner. This is particularly useful for peer-orientated students. A variety of classroom approaches will cater for all personality types to some extent and provide a balanced language learning experience.

88–279 Lalleman, Josine A. (U. of Amsterdam). The development of L1 and L2 proficiency in Dutch: a narrative analysis of a picture-based story, told by Turkish and native Dutch children at the ages of six and eight. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 2 (1987), 217–46.

This article presents analysis of the narrative proficiency of L1 and L2 learners of Dutch. A group of Dutch native children and a group of Turkish immigrant children, born and reared in The Netherlands, were asked to tell a story from a series of pictures, first when they entered primary school and again when they were in the third year of primary school.

In comparison with their Dutch peers, the Turkish children exhibit more or less the same level of narrative proficiency in Dutch; however, their grammatical knowledge is deficient. It was concluded that by using their communicative skills, the L2 learners are able to perform almost as well as native children in a task that is cognitively and contextually easy.

88–280 Major, Roy C. (Washington State U.). Foreign accent: recent research and theory. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **25,** 3 (1987), 185–202.

Recent research is summarised and evaluated. Age is seen as an important variable; native accent can scarcely be achieved after puberty, although some scholars consider that age is merely a concomitant of other, motivational and social, constraints. Interference theory has come to be seen as insufficient, being able neither to predict all errors, nor to explain variation and developmental factors, nor to relate L2 acquisition to universals of L1 acquisition and historical change. Attention has turned to developmental processes such as overgeneralisation and progressive approximation; the interaction between developmental and interference factors is beginning to receive attention. Variation in L2 pronunciation has been attributed to stylistic factors such as formality, participant relations, genre etc. There have been several attempts to reinterpret data in terms of universal theory, markedness, natural phonology and the relationship between perception (of 'equivalences') and production. An integrated theory has not yet been achieved.

88–281 Rahman, Taslima and Bisanz, Gay L. (U. of Alberta, Canada). Reading ability and use of a story schema in recalling and reconstructing information. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **78,** 5 (1986), 323–33.

This study focused on the differences between good and poor readers in their use of a story schema in recall and reconstruction tasks. Above- and below-average comprehenders in the sixth grade heard a story either in canonical (standard) or interleaved (a form of scrambling) format. They were instructed to recall the story and reconstruct the order of story events either exactly as they heard it or as it should be. The procedure was repeated in a second phase.

The data suggested four conclusions about schema used by good and poor readers under simple (reconstruction) and more difficult (free recall) task demands. First, performance in the reconstruction and recall tasks showed that both good and poor readers could use a story schema when the story followed canonical format. Poor readers' story schema, however, was either not as well developed or as efficiently used as good readers'. Second, both

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recall and reconstruction data provided evidence that schematic retrieval is not obligatory for either type of reader. Third, good readers could use a story schema when cued to do so in any task, but poor readers could do so only in the reconstruction task. Fourth, differential improvement of poor readers' performance relative to good readers' in the second phase of the experiment due to previous experience in the first phase was obtained only in the reconstruction task. Compared with those of previous developmental studies, these conclusions support the view that poor readers perform quite differently from younger normal children. Implications for educational research and intervention studies are discussed.

88-282 Reid, Joy M. (Colorado State U.). The learning style preferences of ESL students. *TESOL Quarterly,* (Washington, DC), **21,** 1 (1987), 87–111.

Following a review of the literature on learning styles and cognitive styles for both native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) of English, this article presents the results of a questionnaire that asked 1,388 students to identify their perceptual learning style preferences. Statistical analyses of the questionnaires indicated that NNS learning style preferences often differ significantly from those of NSs; that ESL students from different language backgrounds sometimes differ from one another in their learning style preferences; that other variables such as sex, length of time in the United States, length of time studying English in the USA, field of study, level of education, TOEFL score, and age are related to differences in learning styles; and that modifications and extensions of ESL student learning styles may occur with changes in academic environment and experience.

88-283 Saunders, Neville J. (Curtin U. of Tech.). Morphophonemic variation in clusters in Japanese English. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37,** 2 (1987), 247–72.

This study examines the word-final, voiceless, stop-sibilant clusters formed by the attachment of {-z} morphemes to verbs and nouns in the spontaneous speech production of Japanese learners of English and finds that reduction is the favoured production strategy; that noun attachments are subject to less error than are verb attachments; and that the initial consonant of the cluster affects the rate of omission.

An acoustic study of the same clusters follows, which finds that the length of the {-z} morpheme in Japanese L2 English is shorter in the phonetic environment where there is greatest omission and longer when attached to nouns than when attached to verbs. It finds considerable evidence for post-cluster epenthesis, even when a vowel segment follows, and for mid-cluster epenthesis. The study also finds evidence that reduction and epenthesis are not alternative strategies in the resolution of production difficulties in L2 clusters.

88-284 Singleton, David (Trinity Coll. Dublin). Mother and other tongue influence on learner French: a case study. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **9,** 3 (1987), 327–46.

Recent perspectives on language transfer have highlighted the role of psychotypology and have given new life to Newmark's ignorance hypothesis. This paper examines such perspectives in the light of a body of data in French from a beginning learner of that language whose native language is English but who in addition has some knowledge of Irish, Latin, and Spanish. The fact that Spanish emerges as a privileged transfer source seems to point to a psychotypology factor, and certain distributional and contextual evidence appears to show that ignorance is in many cases triggering the transfers. However, because ignorance does not seem to explain all cases, some speculation is entered into, on the basis of clues in the data, regarding the role of memory codes in transfer.

88–285 Statman, Stella (Bar Ilan U., Israel). Obstacles to access: an investigation into the perceptual strategies of the non-native learner of English. *System* (Oxford), **15,** 3 (1987), 289–301.

Recent investigations into the reading processes of the efficient learner of English as a foreign language all tend to emphasise the importance of activating the 'schemata' which already exist from first-language reading and experience of the world. According to this view the same individual should be able to comprehend a text with almost equal facility whether it is written in the native language or the foreign language, given texts of equal conceptual load and sufficient foreign language competence. Classroom observation indicates, however, that this is not always the case. This observation was tested out in an experiment with native speakers of Hebrew in which the same respondent was asked to carry out the same task after reading texts in Hebrew and in English, texts which were expected to be as difficult conceptually in both languages. The results suggest that there is a powerful affective factor which completely blocks the reading in English of some students and severely limits the comprehension of a considerable number of others when they meet difficulties in the foreign language text. Some implications of the results for classroom instruction are mentioned.

88–286 Sundbye, Nita (U. of Kansas). Text explicitness and inferential questioning: effects on story understanding and recall. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22,** 1 (1987), 82–98.

The inference load in three basal reader stories was reduced for third-grade readers by making the stories more explicit. One way the stories were made more explicit was by adding supportive information to the texts. Elaborations drawn from character relationship maps, scenario maps, and the goal structures of the stories were added to the texts. Components of summary events and explanations of concepts were also added. The second way the texts were elaborated was by asking inference questions at the ends of episodes to guide the children in orally making similar elaborations of the texts. The results indicated that adding large amounts of supportive information increased story understanding and enhanced interest in the stories, but had no effect on reading rate or the amount of important information included in story retellings. Making the stories more explicit by asking children inference questions produced similar results.

88–287 Tahririan, M. H. (Shiraz U.). Error awareness and advanced EFL learner's performance. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **17,** 2 (1986), 41–58.

This research was conducted to observe the role of error-awareness in the advanced EFL learner's performance. The performance of 22 subjects on six separate tasks in the course of a four-month period was studied. After each task was evaluated, the subjects were made aware of the areas of the English language in which they had problems and were encouraged to improve their writing. The analysis of the data showed no statistically significant change from the first to the sixth task in the subjects' performance. The conclusions support the systematicity of the interlanguage of advanced FL learners and the existence of a plateau stage before a native-like level of performance is developed, particularly for those who learn the language in a non-native speaking environment.

88–278 Towell, Richard (U. of Salford). Why is variability a necessary part of language learning? *TEANGA* (Dublin), **7** (1987), 1–34.

Five undergraduate students of French were tested by means of 12 recorded interviews at intervals throughout their four-year course, which included a year in France. Syntactic and lexical correctness did not increase as markedly as expected, and in some areas even declined. The later interview performances were, however, markedly better in such measures as speaking rate (+60%) and mean length of utterance (+101%), reduced use of inappropriate pauses and fillers and increased use of appropriate fixed formulae. This suggests that language learning is not linear in the way that interlanguage theory might suggest, and that account must also be taken of sociolinguistic (Tarone) and psycholinguistic (Goldman-Eisler) dimensions. The development of the language

system and the development of processing capacity compete for the attention of the learner, who must constantly strive for the best balance. Teachers must adjust expectations and accept variability in learner language even over long periods.

88–289 White, Lydia (McGill U.). Markedness and second language acquisition: the question of transfer. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **9,** 3 (1987), 261–86.

In this paper, various definitions of markedness are discussed, including the difference in the assumptions underlying psychological and linguistic approaches to markedness. It is proposed that if one adopts a definition derived from theories of language learnability, then the second-language learner's prior linguistic experience may predispose him or her towards transferring marked structures from the first language to the second, contrary to usual assumptions in the literature that suggest that second-language learners will avoid marked forms. To test this hypothesis, adult and child learners of French as a second language were tested using grammaticality judgement tasks on two marked structures, preposition stranding and the double object construction, which are grammatical in English but ungrammatical in French, to see if they would accept French versions of these structures. It was found that the second-language learners did not accept preposition stranding in French but did accept the double object construction, suggesting that transfer takes place only with one of the two marked structures. In addition, the children took tests on these structures in their native language to see if they perceived them as in any sense psycholinguistically marked. Results show that they do not treat marked and unmarked structures differently in the native language. It is suggested that the concept of markedness may cover a range of phenomena that need to be further clarified and investigated.

88–290 Wysocki, Katherine and Jenkins, Joseph R. (U. of Washington). Deriving word meanings through morphological generalisation. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22,** 1 (1987), 66–81.

In this study the extent to which morphological generalisation can account for increases in vocabulary size was investigated. Focusing specifically on morphological generalisation with derivational suffixes, the study tested students' ability to use morphological and contextual information to determine the meaning of unknown words. Students in the fourth, sixth, and eighth grades were randomly assigned to receive training in one of two word sets. Later they were posttested, in weak and strong contexts, on words that were morphologically related to both sets of training words. Subjects' success in deriving the meaning of unfamiliar words was affected by prior experience with related words and by the strength of the surrounding sentence contexts; sixth- and eighth-grade students were more skilled than fourth-grade students in using context clues as well as morphological clues. However, subjects did not combine these two information sources to yield higher vocabulary scores than obtained with either source by itself. Estimates of the amount of morphological generalisation varied widely, depending upon which of two scoring procedures was used.

88–291 Zimmermann, Rüdiger and Schneider, Klaus P. Dialogical aspects of individual lexical search. *Multilingua* (Amsterdam), **6,** 2 (1987), 113–30.

The notion of communication strategy has been used in a twofold manner in second-language research, as operating on a co-operative basis in learner–learner and learner–native-speaker conversation, and as an aspect of individual interior planning. The authors raise the issue of whether interior planning is so different from dialogical interaction. Their thinking aloud protocols of L1- L2 translation techniques applied by advanced learners are rather reminiscent of dialogues between the problem-conscious L2 user and her/himself. This inter-actional character manifests itself at all relevant levels (overall structure, microstructure with adjacency pairs displaying dialogical intonation, accompanying markers, partner-oriented forms such as pronouns, etc.).

Research methods

88–292 Cohen, Andrew D. Mentalistic measures in reading strategy research: some recent findings. *English for Specific Purposes* (New York), **5**, 2 (1986), 131–45.

In recent years there has been a growing interest in the use of mentalistic measures in studying the reading process, both for insights such descriptions may provide for teachers in their teaching and for readers in their reading. This paper begins by discussing the unique role that mentalistic data may play in research on reading in ESP. Then 'reading strategies' and verbal report methods for studying them are defined. Finally, the paper reports on Hebrew University student studies that have used verbal report techniques in four major areas of investigation: (a) developing a taxonomy for reading strategies, (b) checking the appropriateness of mentalistic measures for different populations, (c) determining similarities between first-language and foreign-language reading, and (d) describing the taking of reading comprehension tests. The findings presented are meant to be illustrative of the types of empirical data that can be obtained through the use of mentalistic measures.

88–293 Horvath, Barbara (U. of Sydney) and Sankoff, David (U. Montreal). Delimiting the Sydney speech community. *Language in Society* (London), **16**, 2 (1987), 179–204.

Quantitative analyses of large data sets make use of both linguistic and sociological categories in socio-linguistic studies. While the linguistic categories are generally well-defined and there are sufficient tokens for further definition based on mathematical manipulation, the social characteristics such as socioeconomic class or ethnicity are neither. The familiar problem of grouping speakers by such sociological characteristics prior to quantitative analysis is addressed and an alternative solution – principal components analysis – is suggested. Prin- cipal components analysis is used here as a heuristic for grouping speakers solely on the basis of linguistic behaviour; the groups thus defined can then be described according to sociological characteristics. In addition, by naming the principal components, the major linguistic and social dimensions of the variation in the data can be identified. Principal components analysis was applied to vowel variation data collected as part of a sociolinguistic survey of English in Sydney, New South Wales, Australia.

88–294 Rickford, John R. (Stanford U.) The haves and have nots: sociolinguistic surveys and the assessment of speaker competence. *Language in Society* (London), **16**, 2 (1987), 149–78.

A central concern in linguistics is assessing the linguistic competence of individuals or groups. Formal linguists usually accomplish this by the study of intuitions with little regard for observed usage, while survey sociolinguists usually depend on observations – especially the data of 'spontaneous' interviews – with little regard for intuitions. This paper argues that survey sociolinguists need to make greater use of repeated recordings and elicited intuitions.

The existence of this need is illustrated in most detail by an attempt to replicate an earlier impli- cational analysis of pronominal variation in the Guyanese creole continuum. It is shown that with repeated sampling and the inclusion of elicited intuitions, the discontinuities on which implicational scaling depends disappear almost entirely. With a clearer idea of what speakers can say, however, the sociolinguistic interpretation of what they do say in the spontaneous interviews and recordings is ren- dered more reliable and revealing.

In the conclusion, some of the theoretical implications and methodological difficulties in- volved in extending the use of repeated recordings and elicited intuitions in sociolinguistic surveys more generally are discussed.

Error/contrastive analysis

88–295 Bensoussan, Marsha (Haifa U., Israel.) **and Rosenhouse, Judith** (The Technion, I.I.T., Haifa, Israel). Discourse analysis in diagnosing difficulty in EFL reading comprehension. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development* (Clevedon, Avon). **8,** 4 (1987), 323–43.

This study examines student translations into the L1 (Hebrew or Arabic) as a means of evaluating reading comprehension of an English text. Attention focused on the following research questions: (1) What kinds of errors in translation are students likely to make frequently? (2) Which of these errors reflect reading comprehension difficulty?

Units of student translations were analysed in terms of micro-structure: utterance-level (propositional content, communicative function – explicit and implicit) and word-level (vocabulary/ expressions, parts of speech/verb tense, pronoun agreement, and cohesion). Also macro-structures were examined, namely the frame or schema of the text. Mistranslations in these areas were compared with misinterpretations of the same translated units evaluated also on the macro-level.

Vocabulary/expressions and utterance-level mistranslations proved to be good indicators of lack of comprehension. Results also indicate that in addition to surface structure and semantic equivalence, the linguistic background of the readers, their prior knowledge and cultural empathy with the text need to be considered.

88–296 Gathercole, Virginia C. (Florida International U.). The contrastive hypothesis for the acquisition of word meaning: a reconsideration of the theory. *Journal of Child Language* (Cambridge), **14,** 3 (1987), 493–531.

The evidence for the Contrastive Hypothesis (Clark and Barrett) is reviewed. An examination of data from the acquisition of object words, relational words and superordinate terms reveals little support for this hypothesis that young children automatically assume that every two words in their lexicons contrast. Further, theoretical problems with the positions that children assign words to semantic fields as they are acquiring them and that innovations are used to fill lexical gaps make these stances untenable.

88–297 Truchot, Claude (U. of Strasbourg II). Les formes de simplification dans la langue de l'apprenant. [Simplified forms in learners' language.] *Contrastes* (Paris), **14/15** (1987), 243–60.

A corpus of spoken English from a group of first- and second-year students of English, both specialist and non-specialist, was analysed and the errors made (1435 in number) were subdivided according to the type: auxiliary verbs, tenses, prepositions, pronouns, adverbs, relatives and conjunctions, and the article; then further classified as calques from the mother tongue, simplifications or errors of context.

Calques were found to represent 31 % of errors made, simplifications 46·2 %. Calques accounted for 43 % of grammatical errors but only a quarter of lexical and syntactical errors, whereas simplifications accounted for nearly three quarters of syntactical errors and 39 % of grammatical and lexical errors. But while the number of calques decreased as the level of the students increased, the number of simplifications remained constant, indicating that simplification is to be regarded as a characteristic of learners' language.

Testing

88–298 Evans, Colin and others (University Coll., Cardiff). Testing advanced communicative competence through role play. *British Journal of Language Teaching,* **25,** 2 (1987), 104–8.

The authors describe the design of a communicative test of French oral competence which makes use of 15 open-ended role plays [examples] to assess tertiary-level students in pairs. The main con-

siderations underlying the final form of the test were the degree of learner freedom to invent (Open/Closed) and four contextually based parameters, i.e. 'situation' (the place), role, character (e.g. easy going/nervous) and the outcome (success/non-success in achieving a particular result). The two examiners involved only speak in order to provide brief instructions for testees, and during the 8-minute period of learner interchange [sample tapescript] act as interlocutors, assessing performance on a marking grid containing such subjectively

interpreted criteria as grammatical accuracy, range of vocabulary, communicative management skills and fluency.

It is maintained that test reliability has been increased because of the non-interventionist role taken by the examiners, which purportedly ensures ample, and 'authentic', learner output. The authors call for studies on secondary school FL students, to see whether the same kind of testing approach would be valid.

88–299 Graham, Janet C. (U. of Maryland). English language proficiency and the prediction of academic success. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21**, 3 (1987), 505–21.

This article discusses the relationship between English language proficiency and academic success in universities and colleges in which English is the language of instruction. It points out some of the difficulties associated with determining this relationship and summarises previous investigations of the issue. It is argued that while the research clearly shows that many factors other than English proficiency are important to academic success, there may be for each institution, or even for each program within an institution, a minimum level below which lack of sufficient proficiency in English contributes significantly to lack of academic success. Such a level can be determined by each institution

individually, but until it is determined, a number of steps can be taken for establishing reasonable English language proficiency requirements. (1) Establish some initial guidelines, e.g. refer to the *TOEFL Test Manual* for cutoff scores; (2) attempt to find the minimal level of English proficiency needed at the institution concerned; (3) design their own tests to supplement or replace commercial tests; (4) bear in mind the very marked differences between visiting foreign students and immigrants; (5) keep up to date with research and developments in the field of proficiency and its relationship to academic performance.

88–300 Hédiard, Marie (FAO, Rome). Évaluer la competence de communication. [Evaluating communicative competence.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **214** (1988), 60–4.

The author describes the tests used on a four-month FL course for employees of the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation. The main evaluation consists of five oral tasks, three face-to-face and two by telephone. The marking system takes account of success or failure on task, linguistic

competence and use of compensation strategies; it is formative/diagnostic, descriptive rather than quantitative, and domain referenced. There is also provision for self-evaluation, but here the definition of levels has caused difficulty.

88–301 Ilyin, Donna and others (California Community Coll. Centres at San Francisco and Marin). Do learner variables affect cloze correlations? *System* (Oxford), **15**, 2 (1987), 149–60.

Research in the United States with college students found that cloze tests correlate highly with test batteries and listening comprehension tests. Where adult open enrolment students are concerned, however, correlations between cloze tests and listening tests have been more moderate. To determine whether such learner variables as age and high-school graduation could influence students' language test scores enough to cause the lower correlations, six tests were given to 257 students in an adult programme. These tests were an open-

ended cloze, a multiple-choice cloze, two listening tests, a reading test, and a structure test. Results were analysed using correlation studies and three-way analyses of variance. Both age and high-school graduation accounted for variance on some but not all of the tests. Age was a significant factor on tests of listening and structure, while high-school graduation had a lesser, but statistically significant, effect on all but one test. It was concluded that such learner variables as age and high-school graduation could affect cloze correlations.

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88–302 Laesch, Kelley Bowers (Communicative Disorders Centre) **and van Kleeck, Anne** (U. of Texas). The cloze test as an alternative measure of language proficiency of children considered for exit from bilingual education programs. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **37**, 2 (1987), 171–89.

The validity of a traditional language proficiency test, Language Assessment Scales, and an integrated test, the cloze text, in measuring academic language proficiency, was assessed. The Language Assessment Scales and two written cloze passages were administered to 28 Mexican–American third graders enrolled in bilingual education classes and compared to their performance on the California Test of Basic Skills. Results indicate that correlations between the Language Assessment Scales and the California Test of Basic Skills, and the Language Assessment Scales and the cloze test are nonsignificant, whereas the cloze test correlates significantly with all subtests of the California Test of Basic Skills. An error analysis for cloze responses reveals subjects make proportionately fewer errors in using syntactic cues as their total errors decrease. Implications for the use of the cloze test in assessing academic language proficiency, the existence of an academic language threshold, exit criteria from bilingual programmes, and the need for continued language development are discussed.

Curriculum planning

88–303 Johnson, Donna M. (U. of Arizona). The organisation of instruction in migrant education: assistance for children and youth at risk. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21**, 3 (1987), 437–59.

The Migrant Education Programme is a major provider of instructional services to students whose schooling has been interrupted and who need to learn English as a second language. As part of a statewide evaluation of the programme, a study focusing on the organisation of instruction and interactions among participants was conducted in 11 school districts in California. A range of qualitative and quantitative data-collection and analysis methods was used. It was found that migrant supplementary instruction, focusing mainly on basic skills, was provided almost entirely by teacher aides. Migrant aides worked in the regular classroom in 68 % of the instructional sessions observed and in a pullout setting in 32 % of the sessions. Examination of the instructional context of migrant instruction revealed that when students were pulled out of the regular classroom for instruction, the regular teacher showed a very low level of awareness of the migrant students' activities or progress in the migrant programme. Collaborative planning and strong administrative support for such planning were found to be critical features of high-quality supplemental programmes.

Course/materials design

88–304 Carrell, Patricia L. (Southern Illinois U., Carbondale). Readability in ESL. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Oxford), **4**, 1 (1987), 21–40.

This article reviews the literature critical of readability formulas from the perspective of their use in second language reading contexts. Relevant empirical research which casts doubt on the efficacy of syntactic simplification/adaptation is also reviewed. The paper argues against using readability formulas not only as guides to text production or adaptation/simplification, but also as measures of the difficulty of naturally occurring texts. The paper argues that valid measures of a text's comprehensibility require consideration of textual phenomena at the level of discourse, of syntactic and lexical choices other than those which affect length, of logical/rhetorical ordering of ideas and progression of topics and comments, as well as – most importantly – background knowledge presumed of the reader.

88–305 Davies, Graham (Ealing Coll. of Higher Education). Programming languages, author languages and authoring packages. *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel, Switzerland), **46** (1987), 26–37.

Problems associated with programming projects for language teaching might be resolved if more courses in which linguists could acquire an elementary knowledge of programming were available. Such knowledge would help the linguist understand difficulties faced by programmers. A useful way forward would be to create an authoring package to enable linguists to create, rapidly, their own material. Some packages exist for the BBC micro-computer e.g. CLOZEWRITE, COPYWRITE, SPEEDREAD, which offer a variety of exercises, and forms of feedback, and make it possible to produce up-to-date material.

88–306 Flowerdew, John. Cognitive style and specific-purpose course design. *English for Specific Purposes* (New York), **5,** 2 (1986), 121–9.

Recent interest has been shown in ELT course design in emphasising process rather than product. This has revived interest in research into the 'good language learner,' the aim being to incorporate those learning strategies conducive to good language learning into the curriculum. Widdowson, relating these developments to ESP, has gone further and suggested that ESP course design could be based on the cognitive style of the specific purpose. In this paper, problems of a process approach to English courses for supposedly 'convergent' academic disciplines (maths, science, etc.) are discussed. The first problem is an apparent conflict between the convergent cognitive styles associated with maths, science, and so on and the cognitive style and strategies of the 'good language learner,' which mainly seem to be 'divergent.' Second, learners of English from the convergent disciplines may need help in developing those divergent skills associated with good language learning. Third, although scientists may be better at convergent thinking, this does not imply that they have no ability or need for divergent strategies in the study of science. Fourth, sociocultural factors may have more influence on cognitive bias than does the study mode associated with the academic discipline of the specific purpose. In conclusion, it is argued that ESP course designers need to undertake task analyses of the intellectual abilities employed in the activities of the specific purpose of their learners, and then relate these to what is known about the intellectual abilities of the good language learner.

88–307 Hall, David and others. Patterns of thought in scientific writing: a course in information structuring for engineering students. *English for Specific Purposes* (New York), **5,** 2 (1986), 147–60.

This paper argues that many difficulties in dealing with written text are in fact difficulties with the organisation of ideas. The course discussed here, starting with this premise, presents certain concepts, patterns, hypotheses, and procedures for discussion, on the basis that their consideration can contribute to an improved appreciation of what may be involved in organising ideas, in producing a text, and ultimately, in having a text adequately in-terpreted by a reader. The underpinnings of the course are related to arguments in the philosophy of science, educational theory, cognitive psychology, and linguistic–pragmatics. An indication is given of the course content and methodology, and the claim is made that the ideas go beyond the confines of TEFL into the field of education in the widest sense.

88–308 Simensen, Aud Marit (U. of Trondheim, Norway). Adapted readers: how are they adapted? *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Oxford), **4,** 1 (1987), 41–57.

Adapted readers, also known as abridged, reduced, retold or simplified, are one type of graded reader currently widely used in teaching English as a foreign language. Graded readers provide reading material at the appropriate level for individual students, help to develop greater student inde-pendence in learning, and can bridge the gap between FL course material and authentic reading material. They enable students to practise and consolidate skills, to extend their vocabulary, and to work at their own level even in unstreamed classes. Graded readers may use authentic texts, specially written texts, or adapted texts. Many adapted readers are apparently adapted purely on the basis of

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intuition about what is difficult/easy for learners at a given level. Several publishers have however produced written guidelines for text adaptation. A survey carried out between 1981 and 1985 of publishers providing such information revealed their principles of adaptation to be control of information, control of language, and control of discourse and text structure. In the first category, many publishers advise reduction of information, including the cutting of subplots, minor characters and descriptive passages. The need can also arise for supply of extra information, for example to explain cultural differences. Settings or characters more easily recognisable by students may be substituted for the originals. Adaptors are advised to avoid density of information, and to control the number of culture-specific pre-suppositions in a text. Publishers advise control of language in adapted texts either on the basis of lists, or on an intuitive, common-sense basis. Some publishers produce vocabulary lists based on frequency counts (usually Thorndike and Lorge (1944) and West (1953)), on basic English courses, and on curriculum research (specifically the Council of Europe's Threshold Level).

Adapted readers are produced at different vocabulary levels ranging from 300–650 items to 1800–3200 items. In the selection of language structures for inclusion, verb forms and their pattern of introduction are the items most consistently mentioned in the guidelines. All the publishers offer some advice on aspects of language to be avoided (idioms, ambiguity, elliptical constructions, archaisms, inversions, and unexplained allusions, for example), language to be used with caution (confusing contractions, colloquialisms, pronominal reference, indirect speech, embedded subclauses, etc.), and language to be encouraged (direct speech, generosity in reference to speaker, clear punctuation in subordinate clauses, chronological order of events, and verbally explicit language with ample surface clues). A few publishers provide guidelines on control of features of discourse. One warns adaptors against syntactic oversimplification, as a string of disjointed simple sentences can be as difficult to read as one long, complex sentence. The author finds the publishers' relative lack of interest in discourse structure and organisation of information surprising in view of existing research evidence that control of lexical and traditional grammatical levels may not suffice to influence language processing and reading comprehension. Large-scale, comprehensive analyses of readers adapted on the basis of intuition and teaching experience with apparent disregard for recent research findings would yield information of value to the relevant theoretical sciences.

Teacher training

88–309 Penfield, Joyce (Rutgers U.). ESL: the regular classroom teacher's perspective. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21**, 1 (1987), 21–39.

A large number of limited English proficient (LEP) students in the United States spend only a small fraction of their school day with ESL teachers. Yet regular classroom teachers are unprepared in how to integrate the LEP student into the regular classroom. This article analyses the results of a survey of regular classroom teachers' perceptions of LEP students and ESL teachers. An open-ended questionnaire was administered to 162 New Jersey teachers who had LEP students in their classrooms but who had had no training in ESL. A content analysis of the responses revealed five broad categories of concern: programmatic setting and instruction, training needs, LEP students and their parents, peer interaction, and the role of the ESL teacher. The responses indicate the difficulties which regular classroom teachers encounter in integrating LEP students socially and academically into the regular setting. Accordingly, it is recommended that ESL teachers and teacher training programmes devote greater attention to preparing the regular classroom teacher for dealing more adequately with the educational needs of LEP students.

Teaching methods

88–310 Bejarano, Yael (Everyman's U., The Open U. of Israel). A co-operative small-group methodology in the language classroom. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **21**, 3 (1987), 483–504.

The study reported in this article assessed the effects of two small-group co-operative techniques (Discussion Group; Student Teams and Achievement Divisions) and the whole-class method on academic achievement in EFL for 665 pupils in 33 seventh-grade classes. The students were taught by 18

teachers (assigned at random to one of the three methods), who participated in training workshops followed up by in-class coaching. Evaluation of pupils' achievment was conducted by observation and by special achievement tests administered before and after the experiment. Particularly noteworthy are the findings revealing that both group methods registered significantly greater improvement than the whole-class method on the total score of the test and on the listening comprehension scale. These findings support the link between the communicative approach to foreign language instruction and co-operative learning in small groups. The study demonstrates how to forge a link between the content and the process of instruction.

88–311   Bennett, T. John A. (Hochschule für Wirtschafts-und Sozialwissenschaften, St Gallen, Switzerland). Future developments in the teaching of foreign languages. *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel, Switzerland), **46** (1987), 10–21.

Speculations are offered about future developments in foreign-language teaching in hardware, software, methodology and general/applied linguistic theory. Current developments in video, especially the video-disc player, will influence what is taught and how it is taught, particularly when used in conjunction with computer-assisted instruction, although at present the video-disc player is too expensive for most educational institutions. Computers will become cheaper and more powerful – their great strength is their interactive ability, which offers a greater degree of individualisation than the language laboratory can offer. As memory size grows, speech synthesis becomes increasingly possible, but speech recognition is still a long way off.

The language laboratory will continue with increasing use of microprocessors, the hardware offering more scope and becoming more flexible, and increasingly being linked to computers and/or video players. Teachers will need to be given encouragement and time to get acquainted with advances in technology. Another avenue of development for language laboratories is the evolving of lighter, simpler equipment offering basic facilities, perhaps in the form of a trolley with a collection of audio-active head sets and a console. It might be possible to develop a system whereby students could call up and perform at home any exercises stored on the computer. Higher-education institutions might develop their language laboratories into language media centres, multipurpose rooms with electronics available but not dominating everything. Television broadcasts by satellite should widen the scope of available authentic materials considerably.

Methodology is inevitably linked with hardware and software, and with prevailing linguistic and pedagogical theories. The trend towards individualisation is bound to continue, particularly in higher and further education, and the computer probably offers the best opportunities for it.

88–312   Davies, Graham (Ealing Coll. of Higher Education). Latest trends in CALL materials. *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel, Switzerland), **46** (1987), 38–47.

The combined expertise of programmers and language specialists has led to increasing interest in the potential of new technology in the classroom. Main trends are a movement away from drill and practice exercises, and towards the development of programs involving graphics, and group activities. Users of software outside the field of language teaching provide an unexpected source of materials for language teachers. The British Council's FAST FOOD program has proved useful, for example, in teaching English as a foreign language, for encouraging group discussion and decision-making.

Teachers, increasingly involved in creating programs, are widening initially limited possibilities and moving towards the development of programs designed for practising creative writing, carrying out grammatical tasks, and acquiring vocabulary.

88–313   Davies, Norman F. and Omberg, Margaret (U. of Linköping, Sweden). Peer-group teaching and the composition class. *System* (Oxford), **15**, 3 (1987), 313–23.

The teaching of writing in the foreign-language classroom traditionally focuses on order, presentation, and linguistic criteria. In contrast, some teachers are now stressing writing as a process rather than a product and seek improvement in the various stages through which a piece of writing should go.

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In this view writing is seen as a process of discovery of meaning, whereby writers learn about their own thought processes and ideas.

The basic phases of the writing process are: prewriting (brainstorming around an unprepared topic), writing (producing the first draft), responding (by one or more readers), revision (mainly concerning content and coherence), editing (checking surface features of language and layout), evaluation (by the teacher), post-writing (reading aloud or publication).

A scheme used at Linköping University involving peer-groups for the pre-writing and response stages is described. This scheme was popular with students and offered immediate social contact and a sense of security. The value for the teacher of peer-group response in the composition plan lies less in the amount of editing it saves than in the added emphasis it places on composition as a process of intrinsic value. The combination of individual effort, peer group discussion, and teacher instruction and evaluation, has been found to develop a better standard of essay writing in a shorter time than other methods.

88–314 Duffy, Gerald G. and others (Michigan State U.) Effects of explaining the reasoning associated with using reading strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22**, 3 (1987), 347–68.

Little research has been conducted on the effects of directly explaining the mental acts associated with strategic reading. The experiment reported here was designed to study such effects in actual classroom settings. Twenty third-grade teachers and their students in low reading groups participated. The 10 teachers randomly assigned to the treatment group were taught how to make decisions about when and how to explain the mental processing associated with using reading skills as strategies; the remaining 10 served as a treated-control group. According to the results, treatment teachers were more explicit than treated-control teachers when explaining the mental processing associated with using reading skills as strategies. And, as hypothesised, the low-group students of the treatment teachers (a) were more aware of lesson content and of the need to be strategic when reading, and (b) scored better on non-traditional, standardised, and maintenance measures of reading achievement. The study has implications both for instructional practice and for conducting instructional research in naturalistic classroom conditions.

88–315 Duin, Ann Hill and Graves, Michael F. (U. of Minnesota). Intensive vocabulary instruction as a prewriting technique. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **22**, 3 (1987), 311–30.

Three methods were used to teach vocabulary to students prior to having them write an expository essay: intensive vocabulary and writing instruction, intensive vocabulary instruction alone, and traditional vocabulary instruction. Subjects for the study were 80 seventh-grade students, who were taught 13 target words over 6 days. Dependent measures included vocabulary knowledge as measured by multiple-choice pre- and posttests, the number of target words used in pre- and posttreatment essays, quality of writing on the pre- and posttreatment essays as measured by two types of writing scales, and attitudes as reported on attitude inventories. The vocabulary and writing group consistently outperformed the other two groups, and the vocabulary-alone group consistently outperformed the traditional vocabulary group. The central implication is that teaching a related set of words to students before they write an essay in which the words might be used can improve the quality of their essays.

88–316 Fox, Jeremy (U. of East Anglia). Some advantages and disadvantages of developing reading skills with computers. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Oxford), **4**, 1 (1987), 59–67.

Computers can serve as a useful learning and motivating tool in the development of reading skills. They afford the learner a degree of independence, and immediate feedback, and a substantial amount of wide-ranging practice material is instantly available. Interactive and group exercises, and a selection of text manipulation exercises have been developed. Word-processing is another useful learning tool, although it is more relevant to the development of writing skills.

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There are, however, various shortcomings, since the computer cannot handle unanticipated or wrong responses, or oral work. There is a need to develop exercise types other than drills, which are often a meaningless way of acquiring a language.

88–317 Franken, Margaret (Victoria U. of Wellington, New Zealand). Self-questioning scales for improving academic writing. *Guidelines (RELC Journal Supplement)* (Singapore), **9**, 1 (1987), 1–8.

Providing feedback and guidance to develop learners' writing skills has been a problem for both non-native and native-speaking teachers of English. This article describes a procedure which places much of the burden for this on to the learners. The procedure gives learners a clear goal to achieve and makes use of materials which are varied enough to sustain their interest. It involves training learners in the use of self-questioning scales and eventually leads to the independent use of these scales by learners.

Self-questioning scales consist of a series of questions which are based on the information constituents of the topic type. These questions guide the writer in the searching for and selecting of relevant content and the organising of this content. [Examples.]

By using self-questioning scales while they are writing, students can be guided in their writing process, particularly in their search for ideas and their organisation of content. Scales can be designed so that they are specific enough to be useful for the writing task at hand but generalisable to other academic writing tasks. Research into the process approach to writing and topic types provides the basis for this procedure.

88–318 Hague, Sally A. (Duval County Schools, Florida). Vocabulary instruction: what L2 can learn from L1. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **20**, 3 (1987), 217–25.

The author summarises five theories describing the relationship between word knowledge and reading comprehension in L1 contexts (i.e. the aptitude, general knowledge, instrumental, access and instructional design hypotheses), with a view to inferring possible applications for L2 researchers/classroom teachers. It is maintained that the knowledge hypothesis is perhaps the most suggestive and useful for such an extrapolation, rooted as it is in schema theory and the idea that knowledge is organised in networks. It is argued that new words seem to be best learned when linked to word groups/linguistic knowledge already possessed by the learner; contextualising, learner involvement, multiple associativeness and word repetition/exposure are therefore felt to be important in encouraging effective learner processing.

Specific examples of direct L2 applications involve Semantic Mapping (a graphical arrangement of meaningful word groups) and Semantic Feature Analysis. In the latter activity, learners complete matrices to indicate the absence/presence in each lexical item of a range of semantic features common to other, closely related words in the same category.

It is concluded that vocabulary knowledge/reading comprehension are interdependent, though the author calls for the creation of a theoretical framework directly applicable to L2 situations.

88–319 Higgins, John (U. of Bristol). What can a computer do for the language learner? *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel, Switzerland), **46** (1987), 22–5.

The computer and the word-processor provide various possibilities for language acquisition: in addition to the role of drillmaster, the computer can perform the role of tool or slave (as in word-processing); storekeeper (to store databases); demonstrator (e.g. displaying a calendar then generating an unlimited series of true statements about it, as examples); stooge (producing language to order, as in applying a grammar rule to a word, phrase or sentence, which a group of learners must then judge for correctness); and playmate, either opponent in a game or problem setter. A linguistic application of the playmate role comes in the form of puzzles which encourage learners to speculate about the meaning of a piece of text. These roles call on precisely the functions which the machine was designed for, namely data storage and data processing, rather than trying to fulfil the role of a teacher.

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88–320 Marshall, Stewart and Barron, Colin (Papua New Guinea U. of Tech., Lae). MARC-methodical assessment of reports by computer. *System* (Oxford), **15**, 2 (1987), 161–7.

The problems were: (1) A team of five lecturers is teaching the same technical communication course to foundation year engineering students, therefore there is concern that they all use the same criteria when marking reports; at the same time, there is the desire to maintain a certain amount of flexibility and independence in their marking; (2) Some students are very concerned about possible inconsistencies in marking and some students want evidence of careful consideration of their work; (3) how to give individualised feedback that is both extensive and effective to a large class of students.

The solution reported on here was MARC – a report-marking programme which enables the lecturer to provide three pages of individualised feedback on every report. It is objective in its methodical assessment of every report according to the same programmed criteria, but allows the individual marker to supply his or her own comments as required. It has the additional advantage of saving the lecturer a considerable amount of time. Student reaction is very positive because of the consistency of marking provided by MARC and the three pages of feedback which they receive with their marked reports.

88–321 Phillips, Martin (British Council, Mexico). Potential paradigms and possible problems for CALL. *System* (Oxford), **15**, 3 (1987), 275–87.

Three main types of CALL activity are currently available. In the first of these, and providing a very useful tool in language acquisition, the computer is used for game-playing. But there are problems in this area, since software uses 'realistic' rather than 'real' language, that is, it reproduces the artificial classroom variety, but it cannot persuade, negotiate, etc. Software is also limited in that it does not offer a comprehensive approach to the task of language learning but provides only discrete activities. More powerful systems offer the potential for the creation of more powerful learning environments.

The second activity involves the methods of artificial intelligence, which can draw upon encyclopaedic knowledge, draw inferences and make judgements, and also, to a limited degree, handle natural human language. The problem in this case lies in the potential risk that the computer might assume a directive role, evaluating the student's performance, selecting activities, and determining the learning sequence.

The recommended compromise, the third activity, is the use of the computer as a wordprocessor. Twelve text manipulation uses are given, e.g. error correction and collaborative writing, and various uses for database exploitation are described. Another useful activity is text simulation, an example of which would be the production of pages of information on a wide range of topics. And finally, research can be undertaken into the nature of language itself. One research facility is the ability to produce a number of occurrences of a word in a text, or texts, and its immediate context.

88–322 Pfister, Guenter G. (U. of Maryland) **and Poser, Yvonne** (Howard U., Washington, DC). The cultural inventory: a tool for increasing comprehension of foreign language materials. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **20**, 4 (1987), 317–22.

The inventory technique is a reading tool to help students take advantage of their background knowledge and experience to overcome the gap between native and foreign cultural perspectives. The greater the reader's access to the foreign language text, the larger the body of data the reader will receive and process. The cultural inventory worksheet is specifically designed to help students collect and organise cultural information in written foreign language material. Emphasis is placed on the cultural factors during the pre-reading phase because they provide orientation and stimulate readers to form predictions concerning the text's meaning. The strategies presented here are geared to promoting independent analytical ability and critical responses to materials from the target culture.

88–323 Sawkins, Maureen. Training for independence in learning. *TESL Canada Journal* (Montreal), **5,** 1 (1987), 59–72.

Learner training – teaching learners 'how to learn' – is advocated to help students maximise their learning opportunities inside and outside the classroom, and to prepare them for continued learning after their language course is over. Activities for learner training can be grouped into five categories: (1) promoting awareness of self and language (student journals, problem-solving activites); (2) promoting good self-management prac-

tices (setting goals, evaluating textbooks, monitoring problems); (3) helping specific task learning (selective reading, memorisation); (4) providing opportunities for global practice (in an ESL situation, using local people, friends, the media) and (5) providing opportunities for dealing with communication breakdown (analysing videos of communication failure, role-playing).

88–324 Tudor, Ian (Free U. of Brussels, Belgium). Guidelines for the communicative use of translation. *System* (Oxford), **15,** 3 (1987), 365–71.

A series of general guidelines is proposed for the communicative exploitation of translation together with criteria for the selection of materials and organisation of tasks. Academic translation (i.e. translation carried out as a means of deepening learners' understanding of and proficiency in the L2) is most fruitful when it reflects the type of communicative priority present in translation in the real world. The guidelines are: (1) use authentic material with a genuine communicative purpose; (2) don't translate in a communicative vacuum – make learners aware of the text type, purpose, style;

(3) translate for an audience; (4) use a variety of materials, such as popular fiction, journalism, humour and social commentary, advertisements, tape or video sequences; (5) deal with linguistic difficulties on an *ad hoc* basis; (6) vary translation tasks.

These guidelines show that translation can assume a specific and significant role in the range of communicative activities available to the language teacher. They apply equally in either direction, into or from the L2, though translation from the L2 should normally precede translation into the L2.

88–325 Wangsotorn, Achara (Chulalongkorn U., Bangkok). Relationship between learning modes and the beginners' success in English. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **18,** 1 (1987), 31–45.

To investigate the influence of student modes of learning on success or failure in foreign language learning, a study was conducted on a group of 97 Thai school students on a self-study programme for beginners of English. Other student variables were also studied: language aptitude, attitude and motivation, non-verbal IQ, learning strategies, and years of studying English. The three modes of learning compared were defined as visual (reading), auditory (listening in a language laboratory) and a combined approach. The three groups were observed over a five-day period of intensive instruction. The subjects then took a two-hour achievement test according to the mode of study of their group. The data collected were subjected to an exhaustive series of analyses. Learning through aural-visual modes was found not to differ significantly from use of the visual mode; however, English achievement through these modes was significantly higher than achievement using only the aural mode. These findings might have resulted from the subjects' greater familiarity with visual modes of learning, but before the experiment the three groups were found to be equivalent in both English proficiency and listening aptitude. To study the relationships between individual listening

aptitude and English achievement and proficiency, the subjects were divided into two groups: the high and the low listening aptitude. The former scored better on both counts, but the difference in proficiency was much greater than that in achievement. Years of English and study habits were not found to be significantly related to English achievement, implying that success in English can be achieved through short intensive programmes, if effectively managed. Attitudes, motivation and study habits correlated with English achievement, but not with English proficiency, years of English, or language aptitude. Some recommendations emerge for the teaching of EFL for international communication in Thailand. Student aptitude, attitudes and motivation should be given due consideration in planning beginners' courses. Self-study listening lessons should be used to supplement core courses as they apparently enhance both proficiency and attitudes. Listening materials should be at a simpler level than reading materials, given students' greater familiarity with visual modes of learning. Students' previous language exposure should be taken into account in course design.

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88–326 Willems, Gérard M. (Hogeschool Interstudie, Nijmegen, The Netherlands). Communication strategies and their significance in foreign language teaching. *System* (Oxford), **15**, 3 (1987), 351–64.

'Strategic competence', a communicative ability sufficiently flexible and creative to go beyond the needs predicted in the FL classroom, is crucial for successful communication in everyday situations. Learners need to be taught to use skills in the second language that they may already possess naturally in their first, and to be sensitised to and given practice in a range of communication strategies. Those learners who in traditional teaching do not reach the 'threshold level' will derive some motivation from discovering that they can nonetheless develop a strategic competence in order to 'get by' later on. Some communication strategies are more easily recognisable than others; many are unmarked. Signals such as slow rate of articulation, self-repair, pauses, nervous laughs, false starts and rising intonation often indicate the speaker is having trouble verbalising his/her thoughts. Reduction strategies are harder to identify: often the only way to ascertain whether learners avoided saying what they originally intended is to ask them. Whether we use and develop communication strategies in our second language apparently depends on the situation in which we learn it. So-called 'street learners' are far more skilful strategy users than classroom learners, indicating a need for more serious attention to be paid to developing communication strategies in language lessons. A proposed typology of communication strategies breaks them down into reduction strategies, including message abandonment and topic avoidance, and achievement strategies: the paralinguistic, the interlingual (involving interpolation of another language, such as borrowing or 'foreignising' vocabulary), and the intralingual, such as word coinage, paraphrase, self-repair, and explicit or implicit appeals for assistance.

For practice of the most appropriate of these strategies in the classroom, various methods and materials have been devised. Some of the more primitive strategies require little practice, but there is general agreement that learners benefit from being taught to develop skills of approximation and paraphrase. An exercise asking learners to describe pictures of objects they do not know the foreign language word for soon reveals how impractical, in the sense of useful for realistic everyday exchange of information, the language of the coursebook is; much of the language material necessary for efficient use of communication strategies will have to be supplied by the teacher. Other exercises suggested are pairwork in verbal solving of crossword clues; asking learners to describe parts of machinery or household equipment brought into the classroom; and describing traffic situations from a layout of model cars and pedestrians. Such exercises offer training in building up a basic strategic competence somewhat akin to the one learners get in the foreign country, where the acquisition process is accelerated by the concentrated effort of transmitting concrete meaning. Allowing learners a certain amount of freedom in their use of the language, as in these exercises, offers valuable insights into how learners deal with linguistic problems, thus informing future teaching and research.

88–327 Williams, Eddie (U. of Reading). Classroom reading through activating content-based schemata. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Oxford), **4**, 1 (1987), 1–7.

Readers read with a greater degree of engagement if they are reading for their own purposes, rather than a purpose imposed by the task. The article considers a three-phase approach to reading in the language classroom: the pre-reading phase, the reading phase itself and the post-reading phase. The pre-reading phase tries (i) to introduce and arouse interest in the topic, (ii) to motivate students by suggesting reasons for reading, and (iii) to provide language preparation for the text if necessary. This phase aims to activate existing schemata (what a person knows about a topic) and thereby enhance interest in the reading phase. The reading phase itself draws directly on the text, with the main aim of enabling the reader to extract relevant information from the text (ideally, information relevant to the student's purpose). The post-reading phase aims to consolidate or reflect upon what has been read, and to relate the text to the learner's own knowledge or opinions. [Discussion of an example of classroom procedure with activities for each phase.]