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CONTENTS

Literature

Applied Linguistics

Reviews

LITERATURE

DOMINIKA FERENS

DIDACTICISM IN CHINESE AMERICAN LITERATURE: HENRY DAVID HWANG'S *M. BUTTERFLY*

> "When trying to slip into the nest of an alien culture the cuckoo's egg of one's own vision, system of values and repertoire of symbols, the writer must remove from that nest one of the eggs which have lain there for a long time"
>
> (Barańczak 1990: 212) [translation mine, D. F.]

Literary critics as unlike each other as R. N. Wilson, M. Głowiński, and S. Rubin Suleiman agree that every literary venture serves a communicative or educational function, and that function, whether implicit or explicit, is evident in every work of literature. It is the domination of the educational over the aesthetic that characterizes didactic literature. Unfortunately for the genre, since the early 1900s it has been frowned upon by Western critics, or shunned altogether, even by those who themselves exploited it. As with all arbitrary categories of this kind, its boundaries are far from clear. We can, however, imagine a scale on one end of which we would find pure propaganda and on the other — pure art. Intuitively, we could attempt to place along this scale a variety of works, with *The Bible*, Aesop's *Fables*, or G. B. Shaw's *Pygmalion* closer to the aesthetic end, and medieval morality plays, Jonathan Edward's *Sinners in the Hands of an Angry God*, Addison's *Tattler*, the *Autobiography* of Benjamin Franklin, Horatio Alger's *Ragged Dick* and George Orwell's *Animal Farm* closer to the didactic. Significantly, some of these works function today chiefly due to their aesthetic value.

As the present analysis will demonstrate, D. H. Hwang's 1988 play *M. Butterfly*, based on a true event and on Puccini's famous opera *Madame Butterfly* (1904), is closer to the "didactic" end of our imaginary scale,

although it has won acclaim as a major artistic achievement. Its didacticism
has been signalled in the author's own statement:

> M. Butterfly has sometimes been regarded as an anti-American play, a diatribe against the
> stereotyping of the East by the West, of women by men. Quite to the contrary, I consider it
> a plea to all sides to cut through our respective layers of cultural and sexual misconception,
> to deal with one another truthfully for our mutual good.
>
> (Hwang 1989: 100)

In his play Hwang employs means of expressing political and social
criticism that are characteristic of didactic literature. The play is didactic in
more ways than one. It can be studied as a satire of commonly held beliefs
about Asia and Asians — and the satirical sanction, according to Głowiński, is
one of the most effective informal sanctions used by writers in evaluations of
the political, social or moral sphere of human activity. Another approach might
be to treat it as a didactic "everyman" tale of an undistinguished, mediocre
anti-hero's encounters with a procession of type characters (The Wife, The
Hussy, The Rake). But neither of these interpretations can give us a complete
picture of M. Butterfly as a didactic work.

Since the study of didactic literature as a genre has rarely attracted serious
scholarship, it is difficult to find a model specifically designed for the analysis of
didactic plays. In her exploration of the French "roman à thèse" Susan Rubin
Suleiman developed a schema of the novel of "exemplary" apprenticeship. She
distinguishes two versions of apprenticeship on the level of the story: the
positive (1983: 77) and the negative (1983: 86). Suleiman's structural model,
though used by her in the study of the novel of an earlier epoch, seems
sufficiently broad to accommodate a didactic drama like M. Butterfly;
Suleiman herself anticipates this, saying that "a given narrative or thematic
structure can be realized by more than one genre" (Suleiman 1983: 64). The
following are, respectively, Suleiman's positive and negative apprenticeship
patterns:

Ignorance of the Truth	Trial(s) surmounted	Knowledge of the Truth	"New life" in accordance with the Truth
Passivity — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —			Action based on knowledge
Ignorance of the Truth	Trial(s) not surmounted	Non-knowledge of the Truth	No "new life" in accordance with the Truth
Passivity — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —			Non-action (inauthentic action)

The mechanism of apprenticeship, as Suleiman explains it, is that the
protagonist has a counterpart in the real subject: the reader or viewer. The
persuasive effect of the didactic story "results from virtual identification of the

reader [in M. Butterfly — the viewer] with the protagonist". If the latter's
endeavours result in success and gratification, the reader is "incited to follow
him in the right direction [whilst] his failure also serves as a lesson or proof,
but this time a contrario: the protagonist's fate allows the reader [viewer] to
perceive the wrong road without following it" (1983: 72). Thus it is the audience
or readers who, ultimately, are the apprentices. When the schematic pattern
proposed by Suleiman is traced in the story of Hwang's protagonist, an entirely
new dimension is added to our understanding of the play.

At the outset of his own narration, Hwang's protagonist Gallimard,
a French diplomat in Beijing, clings to an illusion of Western supremacy, of
a subservient East, and demure, submissive Oriental women. Taking these
stereotypes for granted, he is evidently at the "Ignorance of the Truth" stage.

His trial or confrontation with the China of the 1960s should result in the
acquisition of such "knowledge of the Truth" about the East which would be
undistorted by stereotypes. Suleiman calls this "the trial of interpretation
[of the political and social reality], where the candidate is placed before
a situation — or a test — that he must understand or explain" (1983: 78). Both
in his diplomatic work and in his private life Gallimard encounters the real
China. A lasting relationship with Song Liling, the "Butterfly", becomes the
center of his existence.

In order to convey his ideological message with greater force Hwang puts
slogans and historical facts into his characters' mouths. Throughout the play
the audience picks up clues concerning the "Truth"; Gallimard consistently
disregards them. Song Liling engages in outright moralizing on Hwang's
behalf. When Gallimard compliments her on being so "utterly convincing" in
the role of the Japanese Butterfly, she lashes out at him: "The Japanese used
hundreds of our people for medical experiments during the war, you know. But
I gather such an irony is lost on you" (1989: 17). She can be the antithesis of
what the audience and her lover would expect of an Oriental woman when she
challenges Gallimard "So, you are an adventurous imperialist?", and: "You're
a Westerner. How can you objectively judge your own values?" (1989: 21). Hers
is one of the key speeches in the play:

> Consider it this way: what would you say if a blond homecoming queen fell in love with
> a short Japanese businessman? He treats her cruelly, goes home for three years, during which
> time she prays to his picture and turns down marriage from a young Kennedy. Then, when
> she learns he has remarried, she kills herself. Now, I believe you would consider this girl to be
> a deranged idiot, correct? But because it's an Oriental who kills herself for a Westerner —
> ah! — you find it beautiful.
>
> (Hwang 1989: 17)

The effect of this utterance is all the more startling because of the appa-
rent frailty and doll-like quality of the speaker. Yet, when it suits her purposes,

she can just as easily "pull a Butterfly" (as Hwang explains in his afterword this is a standard Chinese American expression for the timid manner adopted by a woman with an ulterior motive): "A small, frightened heart beats too quickly and gives me away. Monsieur Gallimard, I'm a Chinese girl" (1989: 31). Dramatic irony is at work here, and it fulfills a didactic function, for the audience sees what Gallimard does not — that the frightened Chinese girl, the "China doll" simply does not exist. In terms of Suleiman's model, the audience has already reached the "Knowledge of the Truth" stage, whereas the protagonist is still ignorant of the "Truth".

The obsession with cultural stereotypes prevents him from getting to know the real Song. For twenty years Gallimard fails to notice that he is being exploited by a male spy impersonating his own ideal of an Oriental woman. An echo of this private drama can be found in his professional life, as all the political predictions he makes about the American presence in Vietnam are also based on the same stereotype, and, consequently, off the mark. Thus the trial is not surmounted.

When he is jailed and becomes the laughing-stock of Paris, Gallimard will still not admit the "Truth" about his tragic errors. As if under a spell, he soothes himself with the incantation:

> I have a vision of the Orient. That, deep within its almond eyes, there are still women. Women willing to sacrifice themselves for the love of a man. Even a man whose love is completely without worth.
>
> (Hwang 1989: 92)

No single interpretation of the play's ending — Gallimard's full identification with Butterfly and his subsequent ritual suicide — does the play justice. The plot which seemed so far to follow Suleiman's negative apprenticeship pattern turns out to be the positive when in the end "the Truth" brutally invades Gallimard's cell and the last words he utters are: "My name is Rene Gallimard — also known as Madame Butterfly" (1989: 93). Yet it would be mockery to say that he starts a "new life in accordance with the Truth", which is the appropriate ending for a positive apprenticeship story. This, however, does not invalidate the thesis that *M. Butterfly* is a story of apprenticeship on a different plane; Hwang undoubtedly wants the audience to learn by witnessing his protagonist's plight and, whether Gallimard, once aware of "the Truth", goes on living or commits suicide, is immaterial. His example serves as a lesson for his counterpart in the audience, the true apprentice, for whom, it is to be hoped, a "New Life" in accordance with the truth has begun.

Apart from the play's exemplary narrative structure, reinforced by overt criticism of the Western myth of the Orient, Hwang employs other techniques in order to assist the audience in learning the "Truth". A classic method used by satirists to ridicule certain clichés (and Hwang sees "a wealth of sexist and

racist clichés" (1989: 95) in the *Madame Butterfly* libretto) is to put them in the mouths of contemptible characters. Thus it is Helga, Gallimard's dull, silly wife, who attempts to recall Kipling's "'East is east and west is west, and...' whatever that guy said" (1989: 18). On hearing that Song Liling had sung the death scene from the unfortunate opera she has nothing to say except: "I think it's a classic piece of music" (1989: 19). In answer to Gallimard's comment that the Chinese hate it she snaps "Politics again? Why can't they just hear it as a piece of beatiful music?" (1989: 19), which sounds obtuse, particularly in the light of Song's speech quoted above. Hwang also uses Pinkerton, the hero of Puccini's opera, to a similar effect, making him a thick-skinned rogue whose speeches in the play consist entirely of clichés: "It's true what they say about Oriental girls. They want to be treated bad!" and "When I leave, she'll know what it's like to have loved a real man. And I'll even buy her a few nylons" (1989: 6).

The very choice of language in *M. Butterfly* is not without didactic significance. Hwang has his Chinese characters speaking American slang — not broken English, not pidgin, not even a neutral variety of English. The odd, incongruent effect this produces alters the reception of everything said. As if by magic, those who would be "alien, inscrutable, mysterious and exotic" — the standard characteristics attributed to Asians by westerners according to Kingston (1982: 56) — become familiar and ordinary. "What'd he ever give you? Nineteen cents and those ugly Day-Glo stockings?" says Suzuki, "Look, it's finished! Kaput! Done! And you should be glad! I mean, the guy was a woofer!" (Hwang 1989: 12). Comrade Chin uses double negatives, and his revolutionary jargon is peppered with words like "weirdo", "gonna", "dorm" and "yeah". Even Butterfly, though her English is of a sophisticated kind, slips in a "fat chance" here and a "nope" there. Throughout the play these small touches are subtly put to work by Hwang in order to erase racial differences which, on the surface level he accentuates by the costumes: kimonos, tuxedos, revolutionary uniforms and summer frocks. Having Chinese characters use a natural spoken English is an innovation in literature, where both Caucasian and Chinese American writers readily exploited grammatical and pronunciation errors for comic purposes — "Dat's not a ploblem. She is a nice girl, young, like an Amelican girl" (Lin 1975: 136) — or created unnaturally grandiloquent characters who might say "What harm is there for tiny boys to meet and play with companions of their own age and partake of a very sumptuous repast?" (Lowe 1943: 59). In Hwang's play East and West do meet, and they speak the same language. There could be no better way of impressing upon the audience the idea of racial equality.

Hwang is not unique in trying to get a political message across to an audience belonging, for the most part, to another race. Didactic elements

can be found in most earlier works by Chinese American writers, beginning with Pardee Lowe's *Father and Glorious Descendant* (1945) and Lin Yutang's *A Chinatown Family* (1948), both of which propagate Horatio Alger's rags-to-riches-through-hard-work-and-humility model. When in the wake of the civil rights movement racial minorities began seeing themselves in a different light, writers phrased the new political message with greater urgency and a cutting edge, initiating a revival of didacticism. Looking at more recent Chinese American literature, readers and critics may ask themselves what other function if not the communicative or educational could explain the insertion of a purely factual chapter giving the history of U.S. anti-Chinese legislation in the otherwise poetic epic narrative of Kingston's *China Men* (1989). And in her latest novel *The Kitchen God's Wife* (1992) Amy Tan considers inter-racial relations in China during World War II, poking fun at the irresponsible way in which the British and Americans conducted their politics there. Didactic trends in Chinese American literature as a whole, however, deserve detailed treatment in a separate paper.

The libretto of Puccini's *Madame Butterfly*, with all its racial implications, is the egg which Hwang is trying to displace from the nest of Western culture, craftily slipping another in its place: *M. Butterfly* (or *Monsieur Butterfly* — Hwang's original title). The fact that *M. Butterfly* has won numerous national dramatic awards, goes to prove that those who say true art cannot be didactic are very wrong. "Great great art can never be anything else" claims Shaw (1967: 9). Today we no longer like to be taught. Unlike the audience which gathered round the church steps to watch a morality, or the maids who read Richardson's *Pamela* and *Clarissa* in their attics, it was a discriminating and highly individualistic crowd which Hwang set out to captivate and educate, and this he could never have done without a strong artistic form to carry his message, *M. Butterfly* strikes a balance in which the "aesthetic" function fundamental to a work of art is not subordinated to its "communicative" function, but is supplemented by it.

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APPLIED LINGUISTICS

ANNA LEWOC

COMPUTER AIDED LANGUAGE LEARNING IN POLAND. IS IT WORTH TRYING?

The 1980s have witnessed the spread of computers both in educational institutions and in people's homes. This has been the result of two factors, namely, that computers and computing time have become cheaper, and that many new and less complicated computers have been developed. Now at the beginning of the 1990s, both in the West and in our country a significant number of learners own their PCs and many schools have fairly well equipped computer laboratories. Moreover, the technological advancement in hardware is combined with the creation of new, exciting software. As computers are now turning out to be incredibly useful, versatile and attractive tools in all domains of human life, it seems logical that language teaching should not stay behind.

The aim of this article is to present some ways in which computers can contribute to teaching languages, especially English. First we will present some general theory with special emphasis on software, and then provide some examples of Computer Aided Language Learning (CALL) software available in Poland and its evaluation.

I. PARADIGMS OF USING COMPUTERS IN EDUCATION

There are four distinct learning paradigms of Computer Aided Learning (CALL) in general:

(i) Instructional

The computer is used to present a body of knowledge which the student must master. This can be done by means of a tutorial program, but in the majority of cases, is achieved through the drill-and-practice exercises.

(ii) Revelatory

This paradigm is applied to learning which concentrates on discovery and vicarious experience through simulation and data-handling.

(iii) Conjectural

The conjectural paradigm emphasizes active knowledge, manipulation and hypothesis testing. The computer is used for exploring possibilities and as a sort of "test bed" for research.

(iv) Emancipatory

An approach to CALL which justified itself by enhancing authentic labour (valued learning) or by saving non-authentic labour would fall under this paradigm.

Of course, the four paradigms overlap, yet still this distinction is important, because for some people it may come as a surprise that there are any uses of computer in language learning beyond the instructional paradigm (Higgins, Johns 1984: 18–19).

2. ADVANTAGES OF COMPUTER AIDED LANGUAGE LEARNING

Let us begin with what is, according to Martin Phillips (1984: 4), the number one advantage of using the computer in all domains of human activity, namely the reduction of non-authentic labour. A good example of such a use of the computer is the word processor, which allows the user to edit and make alterations in a piece of text, and then produces as many neat copies as required.

To teachers computers offer the opportunity to make better use of their time and expertise. By taking over tedious, mechanical tasks, like correcting and marking simple exercises, they allow humans to spend more time on preparation and on activities such as discussion, simulation, or project work. By providing a means of usefully occupying part of the class, they open up the possibility of small group activities (Kenning, Kenning 1984: 3–4).

The second major reason for introducing computers to education is that they offer a powerful self-access facility. The computer can easily generate a learner-centered, self-pacing activity. Programs can also be sensitive to the student's level of proficiency and, in some cases, self-adjusting to what they "learn" about him. Moreover, the computer also provides a wonderful resource for extra activities outside the classroom. Obviously, if this is to be achieved, the computer room must be made available to students in their spare time and the teachers must be prepared to recommend suitable software for individual work (Phillips 1986: 7; Fortescue, Jones 1987: 102).

Thirdly, CALL materials are uniquely interactive and self-modifying. Moreover, CALL materials can be more easily changed and updated than, for example, handbooks or educational films. In many cases this can be achieved by means of a special package built in the program, by which an untrained user can adapt the material to his own needs (Nelson et al. 1976: 28).

What is also important, the computer seems to hold a kind of fascination for the people, particularly the young ones. Part of this fascination is undoubtedly due to the appeal of the visual effects offered by modern microcomputers (Kenning, Kenning, 1984: 3–4).

On the other hand, some of this fascination, sometimes even addiction, is quite unexplainable. Higgins gives an example of a very simple program for beginners: The screen displays a simple matrix of information and provides true and false sentences. The learners have to press a key to "trap" a sentence if it contains the same information as the matrix. When Higgins asked his teenage daughters to try out the program, they played it for three hours, in the process reading well over a thousand of these simple sentences. Let us now imagine such a simple, true-false test in a printed book with a thousand items! (Higgins 1982: 107).

Another advantage offered by a computer is that it gives privacy, relieving learners from the fear of being ridiculed by their classmates, or punished by the teacher for their mistakes or "silly" questions (Kenning, Kenning 1984: 3).

3. DRAWBACKS AND FEARS CONNECTED WITH CALL

The fundamental limitation of computers is that their role in education (as in all aspects of life) depends on what has been programmed. This, in turn, gives rise to more detailed problems.

First, not everything is programmable. Moreover, even if, in due course, we find that all worthwhile knowledge is programmable, representing it in educational software may turn out too expensive (Self 1985: 136).

Second, computers operate in a predetermined fashion, which makes the computer's contribution to a course heavily dependent on the program writer's ability to anticipate all contingencies (Kenning, Kenning 1984: 4).

Third, much of the current software is trivial and incompatible with modern theories of learning. For example, in the case of CALL a great part of the programs produced are apparently untouched by the communicative methodology (Phillips 1984: 3). The origins of most educational software can be traced to programmed learning closely related to the work done by behaviourist psychologists such as Pressey, Skinner and Crowder. Behaviourist methodology was incorporated into self-instructional programmed learning textbooks, where the reader is directed to different sections depending on the answers given to a question.

Also teaching machines were introduced: electro-mechanical devices that hold a simple keyboard and some type of a projector to display a slide or a piece of filmstrip, analogous to a section of a book.

It was realized that the computer offered a more flexible presentation device. As a result, especially in the U.S.A. in the 1960s, CALL was produced in the form of thousands of pages of text with questions of the form "which is correct: 1, 2, or 3?" (Beach 1983: 10).

Another drawback is that computers operate mainly (but at present not solely) within the medium of the written language. As a result they are less useful for practising such skills as pronunciation, speaking or listening (Kenning, Kenning 1984: 4).

On the other hand, not all fears connected with CALL are justified.

The first example is technophobia. Teachers, especially those of humanities, often claim that they are "teachers not technicians". In fact, although there exist some technical problems and inconveniences, if the program we use is well-written and "user-friendly", they are unlikely to arise. After switching on the computer, the teacher and the learner need only to press a couple of keys or click the mouse a few times to get the program running. Most makes of computer are very reliable and robust enough to withstand the constant use (and occasional misuse) they will undergo in the classroom.

The second phobia is that computers will replace the teacher. Yet this opinion is not shared by those who have experience of using computers with language learners. Although fears of the computer as some kind of a rival were understandable in the fifties when the prevailing behaviourist theories had reduced the teacher's role to mere drill management, the arrival of communicative language learning has given the teacher a lasting advantage over any kind of a mechanical or electronic tutor (Fortescue, Jones 1987: 99–100). The more interesting programs are those which generate a task involving inter and intra group negotiation for its solutions. Some relevant learning takes place in the course of responding to, for example, a computer-managed simulation. This kind of activity demands teaching skills of a very high order, at least equal to anything required by more sophisticated techniques in communicative language learning (Phillips 1984: 8). The computer is the most exciting and potentially useful aid so far available to teachers, but at the same time it is just a mechanical device (with many limitations and shortcomings), which can be used well or badly. Without careful choice and preparation of materials, careful lesson-planning and classroom management, as well as without training of both learners and teachers, the computer is useless.

4. TYPES OF SOFTWARE

4.1. DEDICATED PROGRAMS VS AUTHORING PACKAGES

An important distinction both in general educational and CALL software is between dedicated programs and authoring packages. A dedicated package has no overt facilities for the alternation of its data (text, vocabulary

etc.) while an authoring package allows teacher's own data to be used in the programs. Thus, an authoring package supplies an exercise type and probably a few example texts but the material for the exercise to operate on is supplied by the teacher.

The advantage of authoring is clear: a teacher can build up a library of "favorite texts" and provide material relevant to classroom activity. Besides, the volume of materials is theoretically infinite. A certain disadvantage is that because only a few texts, if any, are usually provided with the programs, the typing in of texts is necessary before the packages can be used widely (Fox et al. 1990: 20).

4.2. TRADITIONAL CALL

We can also make the distinction between traditional CALL and "extension" of CALL. Traditional CALL includes the following types of software:

(i) Question and answer (sometimes referred to as drill and practice)

This is probably the most common type of software, as it is relatively easy to write. It is very traditional, using variations of the question and answer format and sometimes including instructional sections. The basic advantage of using computers in this activity is the immediacy of the feedback. These programs are also excellent testing devices. But the best of them do more. By providing help facilities, hints and alternative answers, they turn a testing procedure into an exploratory or tutorial one.

On the other hand, this type of software has a number of disadvantages: it provides no context for the facts, treats learning as merely the accumulation of information, ignores the need for an analysis of cause and effect and leaves out the contribution of human interaction. With respect to the computer's potential it might be thought of as a form of underachievement (Fox et al. 1990: 14–15; Dunn, Morgan 1987: 101).

(ii) Vocabulary programs

These programs are often computerized versions of old favourite word games, like *Hangman, Anagrams, Crosswords Scrabble, Wordsquare, Noughts & Crosses* (before he is allowed to enter O or X, a player must correctly answer a question – in this case a vocabulary question) or programs based on matching opposites, synonyms, translation pairs, etc. Equipped with a range of such programs for self-access, a school should be able to offer learners at least one enjoyable way of playing with, and thus becoming familiar with new vocabulary.

Computers can also be used for creating a "living dictionary", like *Wordstore*. Using this program, a student can write up to 1000 entries on a single disk, an entry consisting of a keyword or phrase, a definition and

a context sentence. The student can also delete entries he no longer needs, alter previously written entries, and print the "dictionary" on paper. Finally, there is a "test yourself" option: a randomly chosen definition is displayed, and the student is asked to type the keyword, the "help" function being the context sentence with the keyword "dashed out".

Let us also look at "word study": the discovery of new words by exploration (e.g. in dictionaries), word-building and awareness of word classes and categories. For example, the task may be making as many words as possible from the letters of one long word. The computer keeps the score. In theory, it knows all the possibilities, but in practice learners derive great pleasure from finding words it has not thought of (a reason for consulting a dictionary).

Another class of programs encourage learners to get acquainted with the principles of word building, e.g., possible combinations of prefixes, suffixes and stems. The learner is presented with a list of parts of words, and has to produce combinations that he thinks make sense (Fox et al. 1990: 15–16; Fortescue, Jones 1987: 21–28).

(iii) Language games

When the use of these programs is carefully managed, the students practise the target language in interacting with the computer and, ideally, in communicating with each other. The fun element helps, especially in the case of less motivated students.

(iv) Text manipulation

The software in this category concentrates on reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. The activities involved include gap filling, total textual reconstruction, reordering jumbled words, sentences and paragraphs, matching halves, etc. There is a large amount of software in this area, most with authoring facilities. Alternatively, many of these exercise types can be set up on a word processor, but without the benefit of instant feedback. Effective methodology is particularly important in the use of this kind of software. A text should not be reconstructed in a void. The target passage may be contextualized by being one of the following: a summary of a longer text, a translation, an answer to a letter, a written version of a text spoken on a tape recorder, a narrative to be constructed with the help of picture clues, a technical description based on a given diagram, a formal version of an informal piece of writing, reported speech from a given conversation etc. Students can be also encouraged to use the authoring facility and write short passages for others to reconstruct. Text manipulation is often a more open and varied use of the computer than, for example, question and answer exercises.

(v) Simulation and role-play

The success of the use of computer simulations in foreign language teaching depends heavily on preparation and structuring by the teacher. It has been found that the most useful oral communication generally takes place away from the keyboard. Therefore a role-play related to a program needs to be set at a distance, with a worksheet or other focus available. The computer's role is providing then stimulus and structure without dominating the proceedings: the central activity is the role-play and the decision-making it involves.

This kind of approach is only feasible where the simulation is relatively simple. Where a simulation is complex, parts of the program may be used in the manner described above, while others may involve more reading and language exposure.

(vi) Word processing

Word processing as an assistant to language learning has wide popularity. Not only is it a real world tool, but it is also versatile in its range of applications. First, the word processor (WP) can be used in its original function, to facilitate writing and editing in the foreign language. In word processing, the process of writing need no longer be linear: a piece of text can be built up in sections from an outline or in any non-sequential way. This is a very important aspect, and it transforms the nature of writing. Text on screen is fluid, "unset" until printed. This is not possible in the normal manual process, unless this includes a large amount of preliminary outlining, note--making, drafting, cut-and-paste etc.

The final product can be much more satisfying too. The ease of storage, retrieval, editing and printing turns what used to be the unacceptable chore of producing a fair copy into the logical final phase of writing. When students word process the foreign language assignments, the paper bearing the teacher's corrections is used to guide the final edition. It also has advantages for those with handwriting or spelling problems. The former can readily produce well-presented work; for the latter, with appropriate software, spell-checking is readily available. A student's attitude to the writing tasks can thus become much more positive.

Another motivating approach to word processing is available through software where students select whole words or phrases from the screen (useful for less advanced students).

Apart from having students use the word processor in its normal function, the teacher can use it to generate his own material (mostly of the text manipulation type). One attraction of this approach is that it combines language work with learning how to word process. However, it does not have the instant feedback aspect that is motivating in much question and answer type CALL software (Fox et al. 1990: 14–19).

(i) Enhanced word processing

Apart from the basic facilities of editing, storing, printing etc. supplied by the traditional WPs, other facilities are of interest to foreign language learners. Where foreign language versions of commercial WPs are available, the use of the integrated facilities of spell-checker, dictionary and thesaurus can give extra help. In addition, there are bilingual dictionaries as *Collins on Line* or the *Harrap's Multilingual Dictionary Database* on CD-ROM (Compact Disc — Read Only Memory — a small optical disc prepared to store large quantities of data), that can be accessed directly from the WP and selected translations can be cut and pasted into the current document (Fox et al. 1990: 26).

Another tool for multilingual word processing is a computerized phrase--book-database such as *Linguawrite*. This package assists business letter writing in five major Western European languages. A series of phrases selected from the source language are given in the target language and built up into a skeleton letter, which is then transferred to a WP for completion.

Further help in word processing is available from style-checkers, which analyze written text for readability, impersonality, use of long words and sentences, etc., or even ask pre-writing questions to focus the writer's mind on the type of text and audience he has in mind and, after writing, analyze the text according to the declared aims. Some software includes an element of grammar analysis, but this aims to trap native speakers' errors, rather than the learners' ones. It has to be said that this kind of software is at present far from perfect in the effectiveness of its parsing. In many cases, it can only suggest that there **may** be an error.

Another related utility is the ideas processor, which guides the production of structured, systematic writing. A useful example is *Thinksheet*. The user starts by creating an outline with headings on a number of hierarchically arranged cards. The writing is done on these cards, which can be rearranged if necessary.

In some situations, such as newspaper simulations, desk top publishing also has a role (Fox et al. 1990: 22).

The above programs are most suitable for students above the intermediate level and for adults.

(ii) Databases

Shortly speaking, a database is a structured collection of data. An example of database is the program *Wordstore*. It is possible to distinguish three major types of database:

(a) a small, local database which the teacher and the class generate for themselves (Wordstore);

(b) the set of structured data, already in the form of a computer file, which can be purchased and used with a specified database management program;

(c) large databases, usually produced for business or commercial applications, and often available via telecommunication systems (not in Poland, unfortunately).

The user accesses these general commercial databases using a system made up of a microcomputer, a telephone and a modem (Dunn, Morgan 1987: 101).

The usefulness of databases for language learners is twofold. First, they can form the basis of writing activities. Secondly, they provide information for a variety of purposes, such as research for a project (Fox et al. 1990: 22–23).

(iii) Concordancing

In its original sense a concordance is a reference book containing all the words used in a particular text or in the works of a particular author, together with a list of the context in which each word occurs. Concordancing has a long history, yet it was really revolutionized by the advent of computers: provided that a text is stored in an electronic form, a suitably programmed computer can perform all the tasks involved in compiling a concordance very rapidly and reliably. The traditional use of concordances is in literary and linguistic research, yet now they are becoming a utility available to every teacher who has access to a modern personal computer. A computer concordancer (that is a program designed for making concordances) can be used for giving examples of words with their collocations, for guessing word meaning from the context or for producing cloze exercises (Jones, Tribble 1990: 7–9).

Concordancers can be powerful tools for the exploration of language as it is really used. They are probably of most use with well-motivated, more academic students. With such learners, a concordancer can be used in particular to develop and sharpen awareness of the use of vocabulary (Fox et al. 1990: 24).

(iii) Hypertext

The hypertext concept offers a release from the constraints of linear reading. The idea is that material is supplied with multiple links at various levels, and the reader can "wander around" in the information environment, calling up greater detail on selected words or items. This cross-referencing can lead to other parts of the text or further information on the interesting area or item. Hypertext is especially useful for all kinds of exploratory learning, where the learner discovers knowledge for himself and in a way experiments with it. It teaches certain independence in learning and thinking, but is connected with the danger of "getting lost" in the information network. That is why some authors of hypertexts provide some recommended "pathways" which make exploring the program "safer". The combination of hypertext with multimedia

seems particularly promising, because it enables the user to call a visual or sound, sometimes even film illustration of the studied item.

Another aspect can be that readers annotate text as they read, leaving an enriched text behind them and a path of references to follow or leaving notes on areas of difficulty for a tutor to check on. Within the language learning world, text could be enriched by cross-referencing/branching to dictionary entries, translations, grammar notes and exercises arising from points of difficulty.

The simplest form of hypertext is the branching or maze story, where the course of the narrative is determined by choices made by the reader.

Hypertext appears both in a dedicated form and as an authoring approach, where hypertext generators permit users to develop materials in the non-linear form. However, the drawback of all kinds of hypertext is the fact that they are very time-consuming to create (Fox et al. 1990: 25–26).

5. ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

Without dismissing the usefulness of traditional CALL software, it is clear that, in general, it has remained at a fairly low level of sophistication. In particular, the inflexible and non-adaptive responses of such programs can be seen as a limiting weakness. One obvious source of new ideas and more advanced techniques would seem to be from the research field of Artificial Intelligence (AI). AI investigates possibilities of designing machines which exhibit behaviour normally thought to require intelligence if performed by a human. Consequently, great attention has to be paid, amongst others, to such areas as Natural Language Processing (NLP), Expert Systems (Intelligent Tutoring Systems and Intelligent Help Systems), Machine Learning and so on. AI techniques are also influenced by work in cognitive psychology and even neuropsychology. All these domains are related to the concerns of language learning in general and CALL in particular. The problem is, however, that a lot still has to be done in AI before it can be widely used in teaching.

6. CALL SOFTWARE IN POLAND

CALL software in Poland started some 5 years ago, when Ogólnopolska Fundacja Edukacji Komputerowej started distributing a package of programs (*Yourney, Risk, Americans & Battleship*), which are still owned by a number of schools. All these programs share a great disadvantage — they were written for 8 bit computers, such as Spectrum or its Polish equivalent Junior, which is giving way to IBM PC compatibles. On the other hand, although not particularly innovative in their form, they are all correct both from the methodological and technical point of view. They combine a wide range of drill and practice exercises with enjoyable language games and are user-friendly. They also have authoring facilities.

Soon other programs followed. Perhaps the greatest commercial success has been *ETeacher* by Nahlik Soft. This program is a typical example of drill and practice software, with its usual advantages and shortcomings. It was, however, the first CALL software for IBM PC compatibles, which was easily available on the market. Also the price is reasonable. This is probably why over 5000 copies of this program have been sold so far, which combined with an even greater number of illegal copies makes it the most popular Polish educational program. Recently a new version (2.5) has been released, adding some user-friendliness and a bigger number of exercises. Unfortunately, it still has some of the deficiencies of the older versions, for example, rude, sometimes highly offensive negative feedback, which is especially frustrating whenever the program refuses to accept a possibly correct answer. An advantage of this program is that it has an authoring facility.

Another piece of software which has gained quite a lot of publicity is *ProEURO* from Young Digital Poland. This package contains an audio enhancing card for PC computers and software which can turn your ordinary PC into a language lab. The program enables the teacher to record models of pronunciation for the students, as well as create some multiple choice and dictation exercises. The student can also record his utterances and then compare them with the model. It is also possible to buy *MiniEuro*, a simplified and cheaper version, which can be used by the students to work with a lesson prepared on *ProEURO*, but has no recording facilities. A disadvantage of both programs is the price.

Another program which is worth discussing is *SuperMemo*, which won the first award at Softarg 1992. It is not strictly speaking a CALL program, as it is designed to facilitate memorizing any area of knowledge the learner wants to master. In the case of language learning it can be vocabulary. The program is based on psychological research. It analyzes the learners responses and calculates when, from the statistical point of view, a particular item should be revised to guarantee the most effective memorizing. Databases with the material to be acquired are sold separately, or can be created by the user. The way in which the learners' responses are evaluated is quite unusual when compared with typical CALL. First, the learner plays an active role in it, as it is he who gives himself points for remembering a particular item. Second, it is based not only on recall, but on recognition as well. The learner is first given a definition, then takes as much time as he wants to recall the word. When he is ready he is shown the answer and gives himself points.

Other two useful programs *KET* and *Studium* were prepared at Wrocław Polytechnic.

KET stands for *Komputerowy Egzamin Testowy*, and it greatly facilitates testing. The teacher prepares his test and possible answers. The students do the test on computers, the teacher simply records their answers on one floppy disk, and the computer does all the hackwork: marking the tests, statistical analysis of the results both of a single student and the whole group, and printing the results on a sheet of paper.

Studium combines the presentation of a grammatical problem and a text with drill and practice exercises. The authoring facility allows teachers to create their own computerized lessons.

Also on line dictionaries are available (*Komputerowe słowniki języka angielskiego*).

Another group of programs available in Poland has been prepared by the British Council and can be obtained from some ELT book shops. They are: *Letterhunt* (which teaches alphabet recognition), *Code Breaker* (the learner has to decode an encoded sentence), *Varietext* (a text reconstruction program), *Fast Food* (a simulation), *Deadline* (the students have to write a section of a tourist guide) and *London Adventure* (the best of these programs, an ELT adventure game, in which the students have to find their way around London on the Underground, buy presents and catch a plane at Heathrow).

7. CONCLUSION

Generally speaking, the situation of CALL in Poland is not as bad as it may have seemed at the first sight. There are quite a lot of programs available, both domestic and imported. Moreover, as more and more computers are bought by both schools and individual learners, and some regulations against computer piracy are going to be introduced soon, more are probably going to be published. As a result, it seems that prospects for CALL development and usage in Poland are good, if only teachers learn how to make the best use of available materials.

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ANNA MICHOŃSKA-STADNIK

A STUDY OF MOTIVATION AND LEARNING STRATEGIES IN CLASSROOM LANGUAGE LEARNING

I. MOTIVATION

I.1. TYPES OF MOTIVATION

Every language teacher should try to learn something about his learners' motivation. Motivation is commonly thought of "as an inner drive, impulse, emotion, or desire that moves one to a particular action" (Brown 1987: 114). In other words, presence or lack of motivation determines one's success or failure in a task. One of the best-known studies of motivation in second language learning was carried out by Gardner and Lambert (1972). After a long research they were able to distinguish two basic types of motivation: *instrumental* and *integrative*.

Instrumental motivation refers to a desire to acquire a language as a means for attaining instrumental goals, e.g. furthering a career, reading technical publications, translation, etc.

An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves with the culture of the second language group.

Traditionally, it was assumed that having an integrative motivation resulted in better success in second language learning. Later studies (Lukmani 1972; Kachru 1977) challenged the traditional approach and claimed that both types of motivation may contribute to success in language learning.

It might be interesting to observe how Polish secondary school students are now motivated to learn English. It is essential to point out that all students who completed the questionnaire may be described as successful language learners. As their English teacher, the author of this study takes full responsibility for the above statement.

I.2. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questionnaire has been administered to two groups of secondary-school learners at the end of their first year of instruction in English. The questions were given in Polish and each graded on a scale

from 1 to 5 where 1 meant "Not at all" and 5 meant "This is absolutely true".

Question: Why are you learning English?
— For advancement
— For good grades
— For a new or better job
— For travel
— Because the language is required for graduation
— To get to know people from the new culture
— Because it is fun
— Other (list)

(adapted from Oxford 1990)

I.3. RESULTS

The questions were answered by 27 students from the lower-intermediate group and 12 students from the intermediate group.

In the lower-intermediate group the three most popular motives were:
1) for a new or better job,
2) for travel,
3) for advancement.

In the intermediate group the three most popular motives were:
1) because it is fun,
2) for advancement,
3) for a new or better job.

The typically integrative motive: "to get to know people from the new culture" was among the least popular with both groups of learners. Still, the learners were generally successful in learning English.

II. LEARNING STRATEGIES

II.1. DEFINITIONS AND CLASSIFICATIONS

Learning strategies may be defined as "special thoughts or behaviours that individuals use to help them comprehend, learn, or retain new information" (O'Malley, Chamot 1990: 1). The notion of learning strategies emerged in the 1970s (Rubin 1975; Stern 1975) when it was suggested that some learners might be doing something special or different to achieve better success in foreign language acquisition. Thus the idea of a "good language learner" appeared. It was assumed that "good language learners" make better use of strategies.

Research on behaviours of good language learners proved that strategies can be described and classified. One of the most comprehensive classifications has recently been offered by Oxford (1990):

Direct strategies

Memory strategies:
A) Creating mental linkages
B) Applying images and sounds
C) Reviewing well
D) Employing action

Cognitive strategies:
A) Practising
B) Receiving and sending messages
C) Analyzing and reasoning
D) Creating structure for input and output

Compensation strategies:
A) Guessing intelligently
B) Overcoming limitations in speaking and writing

Indirect strategies

Metacognitive strategies:
A) Centering your learning
B) Arranging and planning your learning
C) Evaluating your learning

Affective strategies:
A) Lowering your anxiety
B) Encouraging yourself
C) Taking your emotional temperature

Social strategies:
A) Asking questions
B) Cooperating with others
C) Empathizing with others

It seems important to make teachers aware of the role of learning strategies in classroom language acquisition. Their skilful use might help learners develop their communicative competence in the target language more effectively.

All appropriate language learning strategies are oriented toward the broad goal of communicative competence. Development of communicative competence requires realistic interaction among learners using meaningful, contextualized language. Learning strategies help learners participate actively in such

authentic communication. Such strategies operate in both general and specific ways to encourage the development of communicative competence. Oxford distinguishes several essential features of learning strategies:

Learning strategies:
1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
3. Expand the role of teachers.
4. Are problem-oriented.
5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
8. Are not always observable.
9. Are often conscious.
10. Can be taught.
11. Are flexible.
12. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

(Oxford 1990: 9)

This article is a pilot study which intends to demonstrate the use of learning strategies by two groups of secondary-school learners of English at their lower-intermediate and intermediate levels of proficiency (the same groups as in the motivation questionnaire). The questionnaire, containing 45 questions was administered after one school year of English instruction (5 hours per week).

II.2. QUESTIONNAIRE

Part A

1. I think of relationships between what I already know and new things I learn in English.
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the word to help me remember the word.
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.
6. I physically act out new English words.
7. I review English lessons often.
8. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.

Part B

9. I say or write new English words several times.
10. I try to talk like native English speakers.

11. I practise the sounds of English.
12. I use the English words I know in different ways.
13. I start conversations in English.
14. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.
15. I read for pleasure in English.
16. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.
17. I first skim an English passage (read over the page quickly), then go back and read carefully.
18. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.
19. I try to find patterns in English.
20. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.
21. I try not to translate word-for-word.
22. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.

Part C

23. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.
24. When I can't think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.
25. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.
26. I read English without looking up every new word.
27. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.
28. If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.

Part D

29. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.
30. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.
31. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.
32. I try to find out how to be better learner of English.
33. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.
34. I look for people I can talk to in English.
35. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.
36. I think about my progress in learning English.

Part E

37. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.
38. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.

39. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.
40. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.

Part F

41. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again.
42. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.
43. I ask for help from English speakers.
44. I ask questions in English.
45. I try to learn about the culture of English speakers.

(Source: Oxford 1990)

Sentences 1–8 refer to memory strategies, sentences 9–22 refer to cognitive strategies, sentences 23–28 refer to compensation strategies, sentences 29–36 refer to metacognitive strategies, sentences 37–40 — to affective strategies and, finally, sentences 41–45 refer to social strategies.

The questionnaire statements were translated into Polish. The learners graded their answers on the scale from 1 to 5 points where:

"1" means "never or almost never true of me",
"2" means "usually not true of me",
"3" means "somewhat true of me",
"4" means "usually true of me",
"5" means "always or almost always true of me".

II.3. ANSWERS

In the first, intermediate group (A — 12 learners), statements 23, 28 and 41 scored the highest number of points. It appears that some single compensation and social strategies are the most popular with intermediate learners ("To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses". "If I can't think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing". "If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again").

Sentences 5, 39 and 40 scored the least points. These are: "I use rhymes to remember new English words" (it belongs to memory strategies), "I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English", "I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English" (both belong to affective strategies).

In the second, lower-intermediate group (B — 27 learners), statements 28, 41 and 32 scored the most points. These are: "If I can't think of an English word I use a word or phrase that means the same thing" (compensation strategy), "If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or say it again" (social strategy), "I think about my progress in learning English" (metacognitive strategy).

On the other hand, statements 5, 39 and 25 scored the least number of points. The first two are the same as in group A. Statement 25 belongs to the group of compensation strategies and says: "I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English".

While looking at individual strategies, it seems that the intermediate group of learners relies more on their compensation strategies than the lower-intermediate group. At the same time the affective strategies are equally unpopular with both groups.

II.4. THE AVERAGE STRATEGY USE

This has been estimated on the following basis: the sum of points scored by all learners in groups A and B within one strategy group was divided by the result of the multiplication of the number of statements and the number of learners.

Group A (Intermediate)
Part A (memory strategies): 2.80 (position 5).
Part B (cognitive strategies): 3.44 (position 3).
Part C (compensation strategies): 3.57 (position 2).
Part D (metacognitive strategies): 3.87 (position 1).
Part E (affective strategies): 2.87 (position 4).
Part F (social strategies): 3.87 (position 1).

Group B (Lower-Intermediate)
Part A: 2.97 (position 5).
Part B: 3.23 (position 4).
Part C: 3.26 (position 3).
Part D: 3.64 (position 1).
Part E: 2.59 (position 6).
Part F: 3.49 (position 2).

II.5. RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The average results only partly confirm individual strategy scores. In both groups metacognitive and social strategies seem to be the most widely used. Compensation strategies, which are next on the list, got a higher average score with intermediate group than with the lower-intermediate one. This confirms the individual strategy score. In the intermediate group the next on the list are: cognitive strategies, affective and memory strategies. In the lower-intermediate group we have got cognitive, memory and affective strategies respectively.

A fairly low average score of the cognitive strategies in both group signifies that the learners should still need much help from the teacher, who could

instruct them how to learn most effectively. The same refers to memory strategies, especially in the field of vocabulary acquisition. The learners' active lexicon seems to be rather limited, thus it seems that quite a lot could be done here to help the learners in acquiring more new words. Also the lower-intermediate group should be taught to make more use of their compensation strategies.

Learning strategies are conscious process and thus they are teachable (cf. features of learning strategies). It seems important to make the learners aware of the existence of strategies as a significant aid in language acquisition. This is to be done by the teacher.

There are numerous methods and techniques of teaching strategy awareness in the classroom. They will be presented in the next study.

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TADEUSZ PIOTROWSKI

MACHINE ANALYSIS OF TRANSLATION.
PROJECT DESCRIPTION

My aim in this paper is to show how computers can be used to help the analyst handle original and translated texts that are to be studied for various purposes[1]. I will report here on work still in progress, and the account will be fairly informal, because no formal results have been achieved. What will be highlighted here will be the problems I meet with in doing computer analysis of texts in two, or more natural languages.

My original assumption was as follows: if the computer helps me write texts — dealing with the most laborious tasks, like keeping track of the line length, proper hyphenation, correct spelling, etc. — why should I not use it for doing the most laborious tasks that I have to do when I have to analyze texts of originals and translations? Everybody knows that a lot of time is spent in such analysis just on the most mundane tasks, like counting the occurrences of the words in texts, or listing all the occurrences of words in the texts. These are tasks which can be done perfectly well by computer. It is with these objectives in mind that I set out to do my research.

The research had one important limitation: it was to be relatively inexpensive. The very idea of using a computer was dictated by economical reasons: it is certainly cheaper to list all occurrences of a word in two minutes than to find them in two hours, though I suppose that it would take more than that to have all the occurrences of a word in a text. What is saved here is the time and the attention one would have to devote to the task. Both can be spent on something else, for example on analysis of the lists generated by the computer.

It is very easy to imagine a powerful translation researcher workstation, which could solve most of the problems to be dealt with. The trouble is that such workstations tend to be extremely expensive. I have had some experience recently with writing a small bilingual dictionary, and I thought it would be possible to use specialist commercial programs. They are however too expensive even for far richer institutions or individuals than me, my university, or my publisher. To be more specific: I approached an Oxford-based software company, COMPULEXIS, whose products are used by Oxford University Press, for example in the compilation of the 9th edition of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*, and the smallest amount of money they mentioned was 15,000 pounds[2].

At the very beginning I would like to say about some problems in my research. The most general trouble with computers is that while they are very useful for the right purposes, at the same time there are many problems that would not simply exist if the computers were not with us. For Poles the perennial problem is the Polish letter characters. A trite example: at present there exists Code Page 852 with Eastern European characters (cf. *Microsoft MS-DOS. User's Guide and Reference*). It includes also Polish characters. More and more software companies adopt it for their products. The problem is that this code page makes it impossible for the user to use French diacritics (as well as other non-English characters), which are occasionally used in English texts. Quite often conversion procedures between various code systems are repeatedly necessary.

A more serious problem is that with computers we tend to think quantitatively, in numbers: the computers can quickly produce quantitative data, but the real trouble is with the qualitative analysis — computer can count anything we want to be counted in the texts, but what is important is to see the significance of these data. In other words, the computer can be helpful only when the research objectives are clearly formulated and when well-thought out methods are used to reach those objectives. In what follows I am going to say a few words first about the objectives of my research, and then about some of the methods which I think can help us towards reaching the objectives. But first the general problems of this project will be described.

A very important fact for us in Poland is that it is expensive to convert printed, hard copy, text into a machine readable format. This simply has to be done, because lots of older Polish translations are not available online, while optical character scanners are notoriously unreliable with Polish texts, which are very often printed on low quality paper, with broken or blurred typeface.

[2] A note of interest: participants at the Translation Studies Congress thought the price was quite reasonable.

It is not quite easy to obtain machine-readable texts in English, either. That is one of the reasons why this research is mostly being done by students writing their MA papers, because they can keyboard in the texts. At this point we can mention what progress has been achieved. Now we are halfway with the project: the students are expected to finish their analyses in mid-1993. At present they know theoretically what to do with the texts, and they have started to input the texts. This research was also initially supported by the Komitet Badań Naukowych (grant no 2258/W/IFA/91), which made it possible to buy some software and to keyboard in some amount of texts.

What are the objectives of our research? What do we want to achieve by means of the computer analysis of texts? First of all, a translator's handbook on Polish and English is badly needed. Such handbooks have already appeared in France (Vinay, Darbelnet 1967), or in Russia (where there are many books of that type, cf. Recker 1974, Barchudarov 1975, cf. also the bibliography in the journal *Masterstvo perevoda*), as well as in other countries. There is only one practical book of that type in Poland, and not quite good at that (Dzierżanowska 1988). For this purpose numerous examples are needed from the actual translations, and some generalizations about translation between Polish and English.

More importantly, the handbook could be based on a hypothesis relating to certain relations between English and Polish, and English and other Slavic languages. Thus the manual will be worked out in a hypothetico-deductive way.

The hypothesis relates to the typological relations between English and Slavic languages, and it was first presented in my PhD dissertation (Piotrowski 1990). Those relations have to do with the relationship between meaning and form in those languages. Specifically, my problem here concerns the relation between the syntagmatic length of lexical units and the paradigmatic packing up of meaning in those units. But this has to be translated into questions that can be answered by use of basically quantitative methods. This means that the following questions should be asked:

— are frequent words in English more frequent, relatively than in Slavic languages?

— do those frequent words have a greater range of applicability (meaning) in English than in the Slavic languages?

— are there lexemes in English which can combine with other ones without the abstract lexemic component which is obligatory in the Slavic languages?

The first question concerns the statistical nature of the lexical relations in texts in English and Polish, while the two further questions are related to the collocability potential of both languages. It can be hypothesized that the answers to the questions will all be positive. This research will help to verify the hypothesis.

There are also more specific problems related to the process of translation which might be discussed on the basis of computer-assisted translation analysis. The results of the discussion might shed some light on the theory of translation. I would like to mention three such problems, and they concern, respectively, the relations between the originals and their translations, then the style (idiolect) of the translator, and, finally, the relation between the language of translations and other text in the language of the translations.

The first problem is the perennial question of the relations between the originals and the translations. It is often said that translation is unique, that it is a highly text-, and discourse-specific task, that translational solutions need not be the same in various translations of the same text. But there is not too much hard evidence for this sort of statement. Computer-assisted translation analysis can provide valuable data to support, or discard, such beliefs. If indeed there are some regularities, then what are they? Again the computer can be more than helpful to answer that question.

The second very important problem is: are the translators hidden behind their texts, or are their solutions different because what we find in all the translations by one person is simply the individual style of the translator, and it is the differences in the styles which make the various translations different? One would have to study the individual style of one, or more, translators who translated from various languages and from various quite different periods, writers, etc. In Poland one thinks at once of the names of Boy-Żeleński, Kubiak, Słomczyński, Barańczak.

And the last, third problem to be discussed here is related to the previous one: it is the relation between the language of translations, e.g. of so-called non-original texts and original texts in the same language. Formulating this problem more precisely, we may ask:

— is translation "translationese", that is, do translated texts have their own grammar and vocabulary, do they form a sub-language separate from the language?

In other words, is there an English sub-Polish, and a Russian sub-Polish, etc., or do they belong firmly to one language, i.e. the translated texts exhibit the same properties as original texts, with some minor differences (the higher incidence of cultural vocabulary, e.g. *vodka* in texts translated from Russian, and *whisky* and *ale* in texts translated from English, etc.).

These are the objectives that, I believe, can be reached by means of computer analysis of translations. At present we can discuss the analysis itself. First I have to describe in more detail what will be analyzed, that is, I will describe the corpus of texts that will be used, and then I will go on to the description of the methods used, including the tools used for analysis.

There are, or will be, three sub-corpora. They correspond roughly to the facts that we hope to find out about translation. It is very important to establish a proper corpus in that sort of research. Technically speaking, the corpus represents the whole general population of the texts, so it has to be their adequate representation, if that is possible at all with translations. There are two general problems with adequate representation in the corpora.

First: from the description which follows it might seem that the project focuses entirely on English and Polish, but this is not so, even though the two languages are best represented. The trouble is again that my MA students find it very difficult to input texts in languages other than English or Polish.

Second, Polish is a relatively exotic language and very often the translations into English have been done by Poles, particularly technical or semi-technical translations.

There are the following types of subcorpora:

I. The corpus which has pairs of texts in both directions of translating, i.e. four texts. I tried to select samples of homogenous texts from both languages, in both directions of translating. They are situationally related, i.e. the original texts were not only concerned with, e.g. linguistics, but both are on phonology, and both are within structural phonology. Both should come from roughly the same period, and be approximately equal in length, i.e. have some 20 pages. In this particular case, the two original texts which served as examples are excerpts from, respectively, Lyons' *Introduction to Linguistics* (Lyons 1968, Lyons 1976) and Milewski's *Wstęp do językoznawstwa* (1965, 1973).

II. The second subcorpus has multiple translations, for example one original and two, or more, versions in other languages. As we are interested in synchronic translation, we cannot use translations which are more than roughly ten years apart in time. There is no homogeneity in this sub-corpus, and it is almost exclusively made up of Polish translations. Of course this fact is related to the ease of finding the suitable translations in Polish. And, of course, there has been greater interest in the writings in the English language in Poland than in Polish literature in the English-speaking countries. The most interesting texts in this corpus are the translations of Nabokov's *Lolita* — the original in English (Nabokov 1958), Nabokov's own translation into Russian (Nabokov 1989), and two translations into Polish — one from the Russian version (Nabokov 1974)), the other from the English original (Nabokov 1991).

III. The last subcorpus does not exist at present, but we hope to establish it fairly quickly. That subcorpus will contain texts produced by one translator. That would include both translations and original texts, and there would be no originals, simply because we are not interested in the relations between foreign language originals and translations in this case but only in the idiolect of the translator. We hope to obtain some online texts from Stanisław Barańczak for

this sub-corpus, as well as from some young Wrocław translators. This way it will be possible also to see whether an experienced translator differs quantitatively — and qualitatively — in his style from a younger one.

The corpora have to be analyzed by computer, and for this reasons adequate software is needed. Again, economy was of utmost importance, therefore the programs that are used are quite inexpensive. I will describe the whole battery of programs, even though that might seem superfluous to advanced researcher, as somebody might find it interesting to use a similar way of analysis.

The texts that are to be processed have to be plain ASCII texts, without all the special codes which sophisticated word editors/processors insert. Therefore an ASCII editor is necessary. All DOS systems now have an ASCII editor, though such editors can be also bought separately (for example those who use WordPerfect might want to use the DOS editor from WordPerfect Office, whose keyboard philosophy is the same as in WordPerfect, which makes it easy to use for WordPerfect users).

Next programs for statistical processing of the texts are needed for computing the statistical significance, standard deviation, etc. There are many statistical packages available, but in most cases a standard spreadsheet will do for most purposes. The program Tesast is used for calculating the statistics of character, word, sentence occurrences.

Next there come programs for handling the texts. At present I can use two such programs, and I will describe them in short. *Longman Mini-Concordancer* (Longman Group UK Ltd 1989, 1991): this is an excellent package, very fast, with good potential for producing wordlists of various kinds — forward, reverse, frequency, etc. It makes concordances as well, sorts them, and helps one look for collocations. It has some drawbacks — it can process only a relatively small amount of text. Above all, it can be used to handle English language texts only, because all higher ASCII signs are converted to lower ASCII signs. This means that it cannot be used for analyzing Polish texts. I have the privilege of using version 1.03T3P, which does not do the conversion. This version is not marketed, but was prepared especially for my purposes by the author, Brian Chandler.

Another program is *WordCruncher* (1985–1989, Electronic Text Corporation, Brigham Young University). It can process quite large texts — linking them, can represent any characters and sort them, and allows one to move in the text in any way one wants to. Its main drawback is that the text has to be coded (tagged), and its potential for producing wordlists and sorted concordances is quite limited.

Now I would like to describe the methods that are used. The methods are based partly on those described by Sinclair, with some additions (cf. Sinclair

1991). Some of the types of methods, or rather their output, are also illustrated in the appendixes. The texts to be used in the appendixes are: the short-story by I. Singer *On the wagon* (Singer 1974), and three translations of the story into Polish: by Truszkowska (Singer 1979), Śpiewak (Singer 1986), and Sobolewski (Singer 1984). It should be noted that the Singer text is not an original English text, but is a translation from Yiddish. It has been chosen because in our corpus it is represented by the largest number of translations. It has also to be noted that I can present only a wide-ranging overview of the methods, without going into details. The Singer text and its Polish translations, however, provided enough material for the discussion of basic problems of literature translation during a class which lasted for four months.

Statistical analysis is certainly most easy — this is purely quantitative work with which the computer is at its best — but it has to be supplemented by more rigorous computation, in particular by finding out the statistical significance of some features.

First frequency dictionaries of the texts to be analyzed are prepared. This is done in two stages, first the programs produce frequency dictionaries of word-forms. On the basis of these the human analyst has to find out the frequency of lexemes. To make the analysis easier all the decisions as to what constitutes a lexeme (homophones vs. polysemic words, etc.) are based on what can be found in dictionaries.

What are such dictionaries needed for? The statistical distribution of vocabulary is roughly the same in any text in the same language (cf. Zipf 1949). By comparing the frequency dictionary of a single text with a frequency dictionary of the language — in other words, with the dictionary of all potential texts — we can find what seem to be keywords in that text, i.e. those words which relate to central notions of the text. Such keywords are more frequent in a given text than they should be, according to a general frequency list. The same sort of approach is used by the researchers at the University of Surrey, who use it for semi-automatic extraction of technical terms from texts (Ahmad et al. 1992). See appendix 1[3] and 2. Both appendixes include word-forms, not lexemes.

Next the distribution of words of various length in the text is studied — Zipf's law (Zipf 1949) explains the significance of the distribution. This is related to the "foreign vs. natural" character of the text, the ease of its understanding, etc. See appendix 3.

Distribution of sentence length and sentence complexity — again this is related to the ease of reading. In various languages there seem to be some

[3] Dr Khurshid Ahmad told me (private communication) that there is an error in the frequency list provided in the Sinclair/Renouf (1988), which was confirmed by the COBUILD staff. As I have no further details, I am using the list with this warning.

stylistic constants as to the length of the sentence, and as to its complexity. Moreover, the researchers at the University of Bochum found out that the sentence length is a clear mark of the individual style of the writer (private communicaton), and that it is constant in any genre — prose or poetry. See appendix 4.

The next stage is lexical analysis. This can be done by means of concordances, which allow one to look at the global occurrences of a lexical item in a text. The most popular KWIC concordances (Key Word In Context) are lists of lexical items with their left-hand and right-hand contexts. For concordances of "Zamość" and its word forms see appendix 6. We can also look at the output from WordCruncher, which lists the occurrences of a lexical item in a context defined by the tags: sentence, paragraph, chapter. Concordances are used to check out the collocations of keywords, or of proper names, or nouns (which are often semantic centres in texts).

I have chosen some extracts, which show: how translators deal with a collocation, and how they tackle hard words in the text (though one may wonder whether just any lexical item will not be treated as a hard word of some sort by at least some translators). It was with some surprise that my students and I found out that the translators evidently have much trouble with understanding the original English text, even when it was very easy (cf. the phrase he "went out"). This was even more surprising when we consider that the translators were by no means novices in the art of translating. This certainly shows that there is much to be done in the field of translator training in Poland.

This sobering finding is perhaps the best conclusion for this description of the project whose ultimate objective is to prepare a manual for training prospective translators.

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APPENDIX 1 — ENGLISH WORD STATISTICS

First 200 word forms in the Birmingham Corpus, ranked in order of frequency of occurrence (Sinclair, Renouf 1988):

1 the	45 about	89 these	133 should	177 house
2 of	46 no	90 way	134 really	178 rather
3 and	47 said	91 how	135 here	179 few
4 to	48 up	92 down	136 long	180 both
5 a	49 when	93 even	137 I'm	181 kind
6 in	50 been	94 first	138 old	182 while
7 that	51 out	95 did	139 world	183 year
8 I	52 them	96 back	140 thing	184 every
9 it	53 do	97 got	141 must	185 under
10 was	54 my	98 our	142 day	186 place
11 is	55 more	99 new	143 children	187 home
12 he	56 who	100 go	144 oh	188 does
13 for	57 me	101 most	145 off	189 sort
14 you	58 like	102 where	146 quite	190 perhaps
15 on	59 very	103 after	147 same	191 against
16 with	60 can	104 your	148 take	192 far
17 as	61 has	105 say	149 again	193 left
18 be	62 him	106 man	150 life	194 around
19 had	63 some	107 er	151 another	195 nothing
20 but	64 into	108 little	152 came	196 without
21 they	65 then	109 too	153 course	197 end
22 at	66 now	110 many	154 between	198 part
23 his	67 think	111 good	155 might	199 looked
24 have	68 well	112 going	156 thought	200 used
25 not	69 know	113 through	157 want	
26 this	70 time	114 years	158 says	
27 are	71 could	115 before	159 went	
28 or	72 people	116 own	160 put	
29 by	73 its	117 us	161 last	
30 we	74 other	118 may	162 great	
31 she	75 only	119 those	163 always	
32 from	76 it's	120 right	164 away	
33 one	77 will	121 come	165 look	
34 all	78 than	122 work	166 mean	
35 there	79 yes	123 made	167 men	
36 her	80 just	124 never	168 each	
37 were	81 because	125 things	169 three	
38 which	82 two	126 such	170 why	
39 an	83 over	127 make	171 didn't	
40 so	84 don't	128 still	172 though	
41 what	85 get	129 something	173 fact	
42 their	86 see	130 being	174 Mr	
43 if	87 any	131 also	175 once	
44 would	88 much	132 that's	176 find	

APPENDIX 2 — WORD STATISTICS IN THE ORIGINAL SINGER TEXT

Frequency wordlist for SING.TXT

the	239	night	12	hand	7	than	5	train	4
a	159	no	12	herself	7	through	5	tried	4
he	115	one	12	horse	7	told	5	used	4
and	114	so	12	left	7	too	5	want	4
in	98	way	12	only	7	town	5	woods	4
to	95	when	12	or	7	two	5	years	4
was	81	even	11	right	7	water	5	young	4
of	74	have	11	some	7	wife	5	almost	3
she	60	my	11	still	7	against	4	around	3
his	56	Shmeiser	11	their	7	another	4	away	3
Ozer	52	this	11	then	7	ask	4	barrel	3
had	49	who	11	though	7	back	4	because	3
her	49	do	10	will	7	become	4	began	3
that	42	husband	10	books	6	between	4	bench	3
you	42	know	10	can	6	breast	4	bent	3
from	38	man	10	everything	6	dark	4	black	3
I	36	me	10	girl	6	doesn't	4	boys	3
is	34	said	10	got	6	down	4	business	3
as	33	Warsaw	10	house	6	car	4	caught	3
but	33	which	10	made	6	enjoy	4	children	3
it	32	Zamosc	10	now	6	every	4	coachman	3
him	31	about	9	over	6	eyes	4	cookies	3
with	28	after	9	own	6	face	4	cried	3
for	26	an	9	Ozer's	6	fall	4	eh	3
not	26	before	9	time	6	good	4	Enlighten-ment	3
what	26	father	9	took	6	heard	4	enough	3
on	25	how	9	where	6	home	4		
be	19	it's	9	again	5	just	4		
Bella	18	they	9	always	5	knows	4		
all	17	well	9	am	5	lamp	4		
at	16	Yes	9	came	5	light	4		
your	16	make	8	come	5	long	4		
there	15	Mecheles	8	dance	5	Lublin	4		
are	14	take	8	didn't	5	mother	4		
law	14	wagon	8	don't	5	moved	4		
Mendele	14	we	8	Feivel	5	Nesha's	4		
by	13	went	8	get	5	nothing	4		
could	13	why	8	has	5	remained	4		
did	13	would	8	himself	5	should	4		
Nesha	13	Zeinvel	8	into	5	sister	4		
put	13	became	7	knew	5	sky	4		
were	13	does	7	life	5	small	4		
woman	13	felt	7	love	5	spoke	4		
if	12	God	7	off	5	station	4		
like	12	half	7	read	5	stood	4		

APPENDIX 3 — WORD STATISTICS

statistics of words of different length: text - SINGENG

Wortlänge	Wortanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt 4306 Woertern
0	0	0.00 %
1	183	4.25 %
2	636	14.77 %
3	1091	25.34 %
4	776	18.02 %
5	557	12.94 %
6	340	7.90 %
7	314	7.29 %
8	170	3.95 %
9	88	2.04 %
10	79	1.83 %
11	35	0.81 %
12	9	0.21 %
13	20	0.46 %
14	2	0.05 %
15	3	0.07 %
16	3	0.07 %

statistics of words of different length: text - SOBOL

Wortlänge	Wortanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt 3379 Woertern
0	0	0.00 %
1	272	8.05 %
2	312	9.23 %
3	504	14.92 %
4	364	10.77 %
5	509	15.06 %
6	407	12.04 %
7	311	9.20 %
8	267	7.90 %
9	172	5.09 %
10	132	3.91 %
11	72	2.13 %
12	38	1.12 %
13	13	0.38 %
14	2	0.06 %
15	2	0.06 %
16	1	0.03 %
50	1	0.03 %

APPENDIX 3 — WORD STATISTICS (CONTINUED)

statistics of words of different length: text - SPIEWAK

Wortlänge	Wortanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt 3397 Woertern
0	0	0.00 %
1	282	8.30 %
2	295	8.68 %
3	493	14.51 %
4	408	12.01 %
5	484	14.25 %
6	399	11.75 %
7	311	9.16 %
8	290	8.54 %
9	187	5.50 %
10	130	3.83 %
11	59	1.74 %
12	43	1.27 %
13	9	0.26 %
14	4	0.12 %
15	1	0.03 %
16	1	0.03 %
50	1	0.03 %

statistics of words of different length: text - TRUSZKOW

Wortlänge	Wortanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt 3637 Woertern
0	0	0.00 %
1	280	7.70 %
2	346	9.51 %
3	523	14.38 %
4	462	12.70 %
5	516	14.19 %
6	390	10.72 %
7	328	9.02 %
8	285	7.84 %
9	193	5.31 %
10	147	4.04 %
11	86	2.36 %
12	49	1.35 %
13	23	0.63 %
14	4	0.11 %
15	1	0.03 %
16	2	0.05 %
17	1	0.03 %
49	0	0.00 %
50	1	0.03 %

APPENDIX 3 — WORD STATISTICS (CONTINUED)

statistics of words of different length: text - SINGENG

Wortanzahl	Satzanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt	434 Sätzen
0	0	0.00 %	
1	6	1.38 %	
2	26	5.99 %	
3	27	6.22 %	
4	34	7.83 %	
5	41	9.45 %	
6	33	7.60 %	
7	30	6.91 %	
8	30	6.91 %	
9	30	6.91 %	
10	28	6.45 %	
11	21	4.84 %	
12	16	3.69 %	
13	13	3.00 %	
14	13	3.00 %	
15	9	2.07 %	
16	10	2.30 %	
17	11	2.53 %	
18	10	2.30 %	
19	9	2.07 %	
20	6	1.38 %	
21	1	0.23 %	
22	5	1.15 %	
23	4	0.92 %	
24	5	1.15 %	
25	0	0.00 %	
26	2	0.46 %	
27	0	0.00 %	
28	2	0.46 %	
29	1	0.23 %	
30	2	0.46 %	
31	0	0.00 %	
32	2	0.46 %	
33	1	0.23 %	
34	1	0.23 %	
35	0	0.00 %	
36	0	0.00 %	
37	0	0.00 %	
38	2	0.46 %	
39	0	0.00 %	
40	0	0.00 %	
41	1	0.23 %	
42	0	0.00 %	
43	0	0.00 %	
44	0	0.00 %	
45	0	0.00 %	
46	1	0.23 %	
47	0	0.00 %	
48	0	0.00 %	
49	0	0.00 %	
50	1	0.23 %	

APPENDIX 4 — SENTENCE STATISTICS

statistics of sentence length: text - SOBOL

Wortanzahl	Satzanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt	421 Sätzen
0	0	0.00 %	
1	14	3.33 %	
2	28	6.65 %	
3	28	6.65 %	
4	51	12.11 %	
5	51	12.11 %	
6	41	9.74 %	
7	28	6.65 %	
8	34	8.08 %	
9	24	5.70 %	
10	18	4.28 %	
11	19	4.51 %	
12	21	4.99 %	
13	10	2.38 %	
14	8	1.90 %	
15	7	1.66 %	
16	7	1.66 %	
17	2	0.48 %	
18	5	1.19 %	
19	8	1.90 %	
20	3	0.71 %	
21	1	0.24 %	
22	0	0.00 %	
23	2	0.48 %	
24	2	0.48 %	
25	1	0.24 %	
26	1	0.24 %	
27	2	0.48 %	
28	0	0.00 %	
29	1	0.24 %	
30	0	0.00 %	
31	0	0.00 %	
32	0	0.00 %	
33	1	0.24 %	
34	1	0.24 %	
35	0	0.00 %	
36	1	0.24 %	
37	0	0.00 %	
38	0	0.00 %	
39	0	0.00 %	
40	0	0.00 %	
41	0	0.00 %	
42	0	0.00 %	
43	0	0.00 %	
44	0	0.00 %	
45	0	0.00 %	
46	0	0.00 %	
47	1	0.24 %	
48	0	0.00 %	
49	0	0.00 %	

APPENDIX 4 — SENTENCE STATISTICS (CONTINUED)

statistics of sentence length: text - SPIEWAK

Wortanzahl	Satzanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt	424 Sätzen
0	0	0.00 %	
1	14	3.30 %	
2	29	6.84 %	
3	32	7.55 %	
4	43	10.14 %	
5	50	11.79 %	
6	45	10.61 %	
7	37	8.73 %	
8	27	6.37 %	
9	18	4.25 %	
10	30	7.08 %	
11	14	3.30 %	
12	12	2.83 %	
13	16	3.77 %	
14	14	3.30 %	
15	10	2.36 %	
16	4	0.94 %	
17	4	0.94 %	
18	6	1.42 %	
19	3	0.71 %	
20	0	0.00 %	
21	2	0.47 %	
22	1	0.24 %	
23	3	0.71 %	
24	0	0.00 %	
25	1	0.24 %	
26	0	0.00 %	
27	3	0.71 %	
28	1	0.24 %	
29	1	0.24 %	
30	0	0.00 %	
31	0	0.00 %	
32	0	0.00 %	
33	2	0.47 %	
34	0	0.00 %	
35	0	0.00 %	
36	0	0.00 %	
37	0	0.00 %	
38	0	0.00 %	
39	0	0.00 %	
40	0	0.00 %	
41	0	0.00 %	
42	0	0.00 %	
43	1	0.24 %	
44	0	0.00 %	
45	1	0.24 %	
46	0	0.00 %	
47	0	0.00 %	
48	0	0.00 %	
49	0	0.00 %	

APPENDIX 4 — SENTENCE STATISTICS (CONTINUED)

statistics of sentence length: text - TRUSZKOW

Wortanzahl	Satzanzahl	Prozentanteil bei insgesamt	419 Sätzen
0	0	0.00 %	
1	9	2.15 %	
2	26	6.21 %	
3	25	5.97 %	
4	36	8.59 %	
5	43	10.26 %	
6	40	9.55 %	
7	37	8.83 %	
8	26	6.21 %	
9	31	7.40 %	
10	25	5.97 %	
11	19	4.53 %	
12	18	4.30 %	
13	18	4.30 %	
14	11	2.63 %	
15	9	2.15 %	
16	6	1.43 %	
17	8	1.91 %	
18	1	0.24 %	
19	6	1.43 %	
20	4	0.95 %	
21	4	0.95 %	
22	4	0.95 %	
23	4	0.95 %	
24	2	0.48 %	
25	3	0.72 %	
26	1	0.24 %	
27	0	0.00 %	
28	0	0.00 %	
29	0	0.00 %	
30	1	0.24 %	
31	0	0.00 %	
32	0	0.00 %	
33	1	0.24 %	
34	0	0.00 %	
35	0	0.00 %	
36	0	0.00 %	
37	1	0.24 %	
38	0	0.00 %	
39	0	0.00 %	
40	0	0.00 %	
41	0	0.00 %	
42	0	0.00 %	
43	0	0.00 %	
44	0	0.00 %	
45	0	0.00 %	
46	0	0.00 %	
47	0	0.00 %	
48	0	0.00 %	
49	0	0.00 %	

APPENDIX 5 — SENTENCE COMPLEXITY STATISTICS

statistics of punctuation marks in sentences: text - SINGENG
Der Text enthält   246 Sätze, die nur den Satzendepunkt enthalten.
Satzzeichen   Satzanzahl   Prozentanteil bei insgesamt   434 Sätzen

2	131	30.18 %
3	32	7.37 %
4	18	4.15 %
5	3	0.69 %
6	1	0.23 %
7	1	0.23 %
8	2	0.46 %

statistics of punctuation marks in sentences: text - SOBOL
Der Text enthält   162 Sätze, die nur den Satzendepunkt enthalten.
Satzzeichen   Satzanzahl   Prozentanteil bei insgesamt   421 Sätzen

2	139	33.02 %
3	65	15.44 %
4	31	7.36 %
5	12	2.85 %
6	4	0.95 %
7	4	0.95 %
8	2	0.48 %
9	1	0.24 %
10	1	0.24 %

statistics of punctuation marks in sentences: text - SPIEWAK
Der Text enthält   177 Sätze, die nur den Satzendepunkt enthalten.
Satzzeichen   Satzanzahl   Prozentanteil bei insgesamt   424 Sätzen

2	133	31.37 %
3	68	16.04 %
4	32	7.55 %
5	6	1.42 %
6	1	0.24 %
7	1	0.24 %
8	3	0.71 %
9	3	0.71 %

statistics of punctuation marks in sentences: text - TRUSZKOW
Der Text enthält   161 Sätze, die nur den Satzendepunkt enthalten.
Satzzeichen   Satzanzahl   Prozentanteil bei insgesamt   419 Sätzen

2	137	32.70 %
3	70	16.71 %
4	40	9.55 %
5	7	1.67 %
6	2	0.48 %
7	1	0.24 %
8	0	0.00 %
9	1	0.24 %

APPENDIX 6 — LEXICAL ITEMS: CONCORDANCE FOR "ZAMOŚĆ" (10 LINES)
Text: SINGER

2	ast station. From there to	Zamość	one went by horse and bug
17	the night all the way to	Zamość.	Another passenger waite
23	Ozer. "Are you going to	Zamość?"	she asked. "Yes," Ozer
24	d. "Yes," Ozer said. "To	Zamość."	"Is that your home tow
26	my parents-in-law live in	Zamość."	"Whose son-in-law are
32	'Is he or is he not from	Zamość'!	It's so dark I wouldn't
39	"Who doesn't know them?	Zamość	isn't Lublin, after all. B
147	he was the best dancer in	Zamość.	We girls used to gather a
152	rty. Half the young men in	Zamość	were in love with her, b
181	humanity became civilized.	Zamość	is neither Bilgoray not T

CONCORDANCE FOR "ZAMOŚCIA" — "ZAMOŚĆ" (30 LINES)

SOBOL	2 statnią stacją. Dalej, do	Zamościa	jechało się końmi. Ojz
SOBOL	14 ze tej nocy zabrać się do	Zamościa.	Poza nim, jeszcze je
SOBOL	20 o Ojzera. - Pan może do	Zamościa?	- spytała. - Tak - p
SOBOL	21 k - powiedział Ojzer - do	Zamościa.	- Pan stamtąd pochod
SOBOL	23 ublina, ale mam teściów z	Zamościa.	- A czyim zięciem pa
SOBOL	29 anawiałam, czy on jest z	Zamościa,	czy nie. Tak tu ciemno
SOBOL	148 stwa. Połowa młodzieży z	Zamościa	się w niej kochała, ale
SPIEWAK	2 c był ostatnią stacją. Do	Zamościa	trzeba było jechać woze
SPIEWAK	14 e go w całonocną drogę do	Zamościa.	Na peronie czekał je
SPIEWAK	20 ra. - Czy jedzie pan do	Zamościa?	- zapytała. - Tak -
SPIEWAK	21 ła. - Tak - odparł - do	Zamościa.	- Czy to pana rodzin
SPIEWAK	29 wiam się, czy pan jest z	Zamościa.	Tak tu ciemno, że nie
SPIEWAK	142 wy. Połowa młodzieńców z	Zamościa	kochała się w niej, a o
TRUSZKOW	3 ostatnią stacją. Stąd do	Zamościa	dojeżdżało się wozem.
TRUSZKOW	15 iał powie'ć Ozera nocą do	Zamościa.	Drugim pasażerem, cz
TRUSZKOW	21 ra. - Czy pan jedzie do	Zamościa?	- spytała. - Tak - o
TRUSZKOW	22 - odpowiedział Ozer - Do	Zamościa.	- Czy to pana rodzin
TRUSZKOW	30 się, "czy pan pochodzi z	Zamościa?".	Jest tak ciemno, że
SOBOL	142 najlepszą tancerką w	Zamościu.	My, dziewczyny, zbier
SPIEWAK	23 moi teściowie mieszkają w	Zamościu.	- Kim jest pana teść
SPIEWAK	136 Była najlepszą tancerką w	Zamościu.	My, dziewczyny, zbier
TRUSZKOW	24 moi teściowie mieszkają w	Zamościu.	- Czy mogę zapytać,
TRUSZKOW	144 jlepszą tancerką w całym	Zamościu.	My, dziewczęta, zbiera
TRUSZKOW	150 ołowa młodych mężczyzn w	Zamościu	kochała się w niej, lec
SOBOL	36 by ich nie znał? W końcu	Zamość	to mimo wszystko nie Lubl
SOBOL	176 dzkość się ucywilizowała.	Zamość	to nie Biłgoraj, ani Toma
SPIEWAK	36 - Kto by ich nie znał?	Zamość	to jednak nie Lublin. Ale
SPIEWAK	170 dzkość się ucywilizowała.	Zamość	to nie Biłgoraj czy Tomas
TRUSZKOW	37 - Któż by go nie znał?	Zamość	to nie Lublin, mimo wszys
TRUSZKOW	182 dzkość ucywilizowała się.	Zamość	to nie Biłgoraj ani Toma

APPENDIX 7 — BIBLICAL QUOTATION

lexical items: ENG: parlor, went outside

SINGER 83:1

his mind: "There be three which are concealed from me, yea, four which I know not: the way of the eagle in the air; the way of a serpent upon a rock; the way of a ship in the midst of the sea; and the way of a man with a maid." "Which forsaketh the guide of her youth, and forgetteth the covenant of her God." p83 s1 *Ozer left his luggage in the **parlor** and **went outside**.* s2 One half of the sky was still night; the other half glowed a deep red. s3 Dew was falling as though from a sieve. s4 Birds were twittering. s5 Ozer moved like a sleepwalker. s6 His legs took him to the yard of the synagogue. s7 He passed the barrel where the worshippers washed their hands. s8

SOBOL 95:1

do głowy wiersze z Księgi Przysłów: Te trzy rzeczy są ukryte przede mną, owszem, cztery, których nie znam: drogi orła w powietrzu, drogi węża na skale, drogi okrętu wśród morza i drogi mężowej z panną... która porzuca przewodnika młodości i zapomina o swym przymierzu z Bogiem. p95 s1 *Ojzer zostawił bagaże w **sieni** i **wyszedł z domu.*** s2 Połowa nieba była jeszcze ciemna, drugą połowę rozświetlała głęboka czerwień. s3 Rosa opadała, jakby ją ktoś przesiewał przez sito. s4 Ptaki ćwierkały. s5 Ojzer poruszał się jak lunatyk. s6 Nogi same zaprowadziły go na podwórze synagogi. s7 Minął beczkę gdzie wierni myją ręce. s8

SPIEWAK 88:1

Przypomniał sobie wersety z Księgi Przysłów: "Te trzy rzeczy są ukryte przede mną, owszem cztery, których nie wiem: Drogi orlej na powietrzu, drogi wężowej na skale, drogi okrętowej wpośród morza i drogi mężowej z panną: Która opuszcza wodza młodości swojej, a przymierza Boga swojego zapomina". p88 s1 *Ozer zostawił bagaże w **bawialni** i **wszedł w głąb domu.*** s2 Na połowie nieba nadal trwała noc, druga rozpaliła się purpurą. s3 Rosa opadła jakby przez sito. s4 Świergotały ptaki. s5 Ozer poruszał się jak lunatyk. s6 Nogi same zaprowadziły go na dziedziniec synagogi. s7 Ominął beczkę, w której wierni myli ręce. s8.

TRUSZKOW 93:1

Przyszły mu na myśl wersety z Księgi Przypowieści: p90 s1 "Trzy rzeczy są u mnie trudne, a czwartej zgoła nie wiem. p91 s1 Drogi orłowej na powietrzu, drogi wężowej na skale, drogi okrętu wpośród morza, a drogi męża w młodości." p92 s1 "I opuszcza wodza młodości swojej, i zapomniała przymierza Bogu swego." p93 s1 *Ozer zostawił swój bagaż w **salonie** i **wyszedł na dwór.*** s2 Jedną połowę nieba obejmowała jeszcze noc, druga płonęła głęboką czerwienią. s3 Rosa opadła jakby przepuszczona przez sito. s4 Ptaki świergotały. s5 Ozer poruszał się jak lunatyk, a same nogi niosły go na dziedziniec synagogi. s6 Minął beczkę, w której wierni myli ręce. s7

APPENDIX 8 — COLLOCATIONS

collocations: ENG: crickets chirped, frogs croaked, wagon drawn

SINGER 2:11

The station was located a few versts from the village, and the breezes that drifted from the fields smelled of fresh-cut hay and the smoke of fires in which shepherds were roasting potatoes. s11 *Frogs croaked.* s12 *Crickets chirped.* s13 *A wagon drawn* by one horse arrived from somewhere, and knew that it would take him through the night all the way to Zamość. p3 s1

SOBOL 2:9

krainy Nod. s8 Stacja była położona o kilka wiorst od wioski, wiatr niósł z pola zapach świeżo skoszonego siana i dymu ognisk, w których pastuchy pieką kartofle. s9 *Żaby kumkały.* s10 *Cykały świerszcze.* s11 Zajechała skądś *furka, zaprzężona* w jednego konia i Ojzer pomyślał, że mógłby jeszcze tej nocy zabrać się do Zamościa. p3 s1

SPIEWAK 2:10

Stacja położona była kilka wiorst od wsi i podmuchy wiatru, które docierały z pól, niosły zapach świeżego siana i dymu z ognisk, w których pasterze piekli kartofle. s10 *Żaby rechotały.* s11 *Świerszcze cykały.* s12 Nadjechał skądś *wóz ciągniony* przez jednego konia i Ozer wiedział, że zabierze go w całonocną drogę do Zamościa. p3 s1

TRUSZKOW 2:10

Stacja była oddalona o kilka wiorst od wioski, lecz powiew znad łąk niósł zapach świeżo skoszonego siana i woń dymu, w którym pasterze piekli ziemniaki. s10 *Żaby skrzeczały.* s11 *Świerszcze ćwierkały.* s12 Nadjechał *wóz zaprzężony* w jednego konia, który miał powieźć Ozera nocą do Zamościa. p3 s1

MICHAL POST

CONTRASTIVE LEXICAL ANALYSIS
AND BILINGUAL LEXICAL COMPETENCE

1. ARGUMENT

The ultimate goal of a foreign learner is to acquire linguistic competence approximating, rather rarely in all language components, the linguistic competence of native speakers of L_2. A part of this linguistic competence is constituted by the learner's lexical competence, i.e. his knowledge of L_2 lexicon.

It is a generally accepted view that L_1 enters L_2 teaching and learning, thus influencing the acquisition of foreign learner's linguistic competence. The most obvious way in which L_1 does it is as an instrument of instruction, i.e. as pedagogical materials of various kind and teacher's explicit explanation. The disagreement concerns the role that L_1 is to play and the use that is to be made of it in L_2 pedagogy. According to the adherents of Direct Method and Audio Lingual Method L_1 should be ruled out from instruction altogether. The opposite view is held by the proponents of Cognitive Approach who consider L_1 a positive factor. Our attitude, and the central assumption of the present paper, is in keeping with the latter view. In particular, we assume that the influence of L_1 on the process of L_2 vocabulary teaching and learning cannot be avoided, therefore teachers and learners should necessarily attempt to capitalize on it. To substantiate the claims, we shall demonstrate that 1) L_1 lexicon's influence is inevitable (section 2), and that 2) explicit reference to L_1 lexicon is a welcome and advantageous factor in L_2 vocabulary teaching and learning (section 3).

It is already clear that the treatment of L_2 vocabulary in the classroom should also be based on comparisons of L_1 and L_2 lexical structures. Such a view contrasts with the commonly held opinion that contrastive analyses are pedagogically useless. It is our conviction that the general reluctance to contrastive studies of all kinds results from a dissatisfaction with the results of application of phonological and syntactic comparisons only. The contrastive descriptions of L_1 and L_2 lexicons are yet to be carried out and their pedagogical applicability is to be tested yet, too.

Above we said that a part of foreign learner's linguistic competence is constituted by his lexical competence, i.e. the knowledge of L_2 lexicon. More precisely speaking, foreign learner's lexical competence is his bilingual lexical competence, i.e. the knowledge of both L_1 and L_2 vocabulary[1]. In section 4 of the present paper, we shall argue that, in addition to its more traditional, practical applications, contrastive lexical analysis may also elucidate certain important aspects of foreign learner's bilingual lexical competence.

2. THE INFLUENCE OF L_1 LEXICON ON THE ACQUISITION OF L_2 LEXICON

According to many cognitivists new knowledge is to a greater or smaller degree acquired via old knowledge (Ausubel 1968; Marton 1978). When this assumption is applied to L_1 and L_2 vocabulary, we can say that the old knowledge is constituted by the L_1 network of concepts, i.e. conceptual structure, together with word forms mapped onto it. It is in relationship to thus understood L_1 lexical structure that the L_2 lexical structure is acquired.

According to Marton (1978), in the acquisition of L_2 vocabulary the learner is not required to form and memorize new concepts, at least at the beginning stage, but rather to learn new labels (word forms) for the concepts he already has in his mind. The old concepts are so deeply rooted in his conceptual structure that to rule them out of the process of acquisition of meaning of new foreign words is not possible at all. The foreign learner is doomed to make more or less conscious comparisons and to draw analogies between his L_1 lexicon and L_2 lexicon.

Marton maintains that at least for some beginners the ultimate understanding of the concept linked with L_2 word form is achieved by way of relating it to appropriate L_1 lexical items. He even doubts that the students who follow their teacher's advice not to seek native equivalents, are really capable of ruling out their native language at all. Every time they try to understand correctly the concept represented by a new symbol, the related native lexical item frequently comes to their minds automatically. The learners behave like this because it requires little effort on their part.

The above view on the influence of L_1 vocabulary on the L_2 vocabulary follows from the assumption that foreign vocabulary acquisition is a typical instance of representational learning, the essence of which is not to acquire new

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[1] There exists ample literature on lexical organization in bilinguals. However, much of it remains equivocal on the issue involved. Some studies seem to point to separate word lists for L_1 and L_2, while others argue that there is a single lexical store. Most studies seem to show that there is interaction between the lexicons of the two languages in one user.

concepts but to establish linking between new names and the concepts already possessed (Ausubel 1968; Marton 1978).

This rather widespread tendency of foreign language learners to match the acquired L_2 item with the corresponding L_1 word normally clashes with the non-congruence of L_1 and L_2 lexical structures. It is a common knowledge that different languages lexicalize semantic space differently. As a result lexical structures are language specific. Lyons (1968: 426) says that "it is a characteristics of languages that they impose a particular lexical characterization upon the world and draw the boundaries, as it were, in different places". Since the extent of overlapping or differences depends mainly on the cultural differences between L_1 and L_2, it can be safely assumed that vocabulary is culture-specific. Languages mainly through their lexicons reflect the particular and usually unique ways of life of their speakers. As regards the matching of L_1 and L_2 items one can postulate the continuum at one end of which there are rather cases of one-to-one correspondence, and at the other end there are items in one language that have no equivalents at all in the other.

It has been indicated in literature that the non-congruence of L_1 and L_2 lexical structures can be a source of numerous errors, i.e. of negative influence of L_1 on L_2. For instance, George (1972) discusses the phenomenon of cross-association. German learners of English produce deviant sentences like *the man met his woman and children in the park, which is caused by the redundancy of L_2, i.e. of English. English has two words woman and wife for one German Frau.

Johnson (1988) has discussed a different case of lexical interference. In an empirical study of English and Polish vulgarisms he noticed that L_2 learners transfer vulgarity values from their native language into the words of L_2.

A wide-scale study of errors committed by Polish learners of English conducted by Arabski (1978) showed that at the beginning and intermediate levels lexical errors are the most frequent type, and at the advanced level they are the second most frequent type (after articles).

Analyses of errors committed by learners of such languages as German, Russian and French reported in Komorowska (1978) likewise attribute the majority of lexical errors committed by Polish learners of the indicated languages are due to the non-congruence of lexical structures.

James (1980), having considered numerous studies intended to establish the ratio of interlingual and intralingual errors concluded that between a third and a half of learner errors may be caused by the L_1–L_2 misfit. This observation is at least partially true about lexical errors. Its relevance to our discussion is

that whether one likes it or not, language learners do rely on their mother tongue to a considerable extent. This in turn provides a justification for both lexical contrastive analyses and the application of their results on the classroom.

3. THE TEACHING AND LEARNING OF L_2 WORDS IN PAIRS WITH THEIR L_1 EQUIVALENTS

The teaching and learning of L_2 vocabulary at post-elementary levels seems to favour, if not advocate, the application of what may be called contrastive technique, the essence of which is teaching in pairs.

The type of words acquired at the elementary stages consists mainly of words for persons and things in the classroom, in their local community, in the students' houses. As a result, most of this basis vocabulary can be demonstrated through pictures, actions or other visual aids.

At the later stages of elementary learning, and in particular at the intermediate level, students begin to go beyond their immediate experience and they are taught and learn words like *snow*, *subway* etc., which are not present in their immediate environment and cannot be directly demonstrated. In such cases, the poor command of L_2 excludes both the presentation and explanation in this language, and the sophisticated techniques, such as learning words in context. Although the adherents of Direct and Audio Lingual Methods rule out L_1 from instruction, a recommended solution seems to be to teach and learn vocabulary in lists of paired words.

This is indeed the suggestion made in Carter (1987) who says that a vocabulary list should contain a word from L_2 and 1) either a synonym, or 2) an L_1 translation. Large numbers of words can be learned efficiently in this way. Marton (1978) argues that the main technique of foreign vocabulary explanation during the first two–three years of learning should consist in giving the pupils their native equivalents and native language definitions.

In the quoted paper, Carter (1987) reports two experiments involving Russian and Finnish learners of English. The first experiment conducted with the Finnish learners showed that learning L_2 words in pairs with the L_1 translations was superior to learning them in context. The other experiment demonstrated that learning foreign words in pairs did have positive influence on their memorization, i.e. they were memorized more efficiently. He observed, however, that the more advanced the learners were the more likely they were to benefit just from learning words in context.

An important role in foreign language teaching and learning is played by bilingual dictionaries which, according to Hartman (1983) "are the norm, the most natural kind of dictionary". The frequency of use of such dictionaries

by foreign learners seems to support the usefulness of teaching and learning foreign words in pairs with the native ones. In an experiment, Tomaszczyk (1983) found out that not only did the beginning and intermediate learners rely on bilingual dictionaries almost exclusively, but also secondary school and university language teachers used them more than L_2 and other monolingual dictionaries, even though the latter were available to them. Even those users who do not find monolingual dictionaries too difficult to use feel more comfortable with the bilingual ones and prefer them whenever the choice of two distinct types — bilingual and monolingual is required. The reasons for learners' adherence to bilingual dictionaries are many, but one should emphasize the fact that they are quasi-contrastive exercises, which supports one of the claims of the present paper.

The preference for bilingual dictionaries and thus for learning foreign vocabulary items in pairs with the native language equivalents is a factor positively contributing to the development of one's lexical competence. In a large-scale study of factors influencing the formation of linguistic and communicative competence in Polish students of English, Komorowska (1978) found that the ownership of only a bilingual dictionary is related in a statistically significant way to a better linguistic competence.

The above discussion of various aspects of foreign vocabulary acquisition clearly points out the validity and need of contrastive vocabulary reaching, involving pairs of matching L_1/L_2 items, accompanied by various quantities of explicit prescriptive assistance. It also turns out that the learners have a natural inclination to matching L_1 and L_2 vocabulary items. No matter what assistance the teacher offers to his pupils to facilitate their L_2 vocabulary acquisition, they always link up new words with the existing in their minds conceptual structures via native language lexical items.

4. BILINGUAL LEXICAL COMPETENCE AND CONTRASTIVE LEXICAL ANALYSIS

As suggested in section 1, the ultimate goal of a foreign language learner is to acquire linguistic competence approximating the linguistic competence of native speakers of the acquired language, the knowledge of L_2 vocabulary being a part of his linguistic competence. But what does exactly the learner's lexical competence?

Richards (1976) indicates the following aspects of lexical competence:
1) knowing a word means knowing its semantic value,
2) knowing a word means knowing its different meanings,
3) knowing a word means knowing its syntactic behaviour,
4) knowing a word means knowing its underlying form and derivations,

5) knowing a word means knowing the degree of probability of encountering it and the sorts of words most likely to be found associated with it,

6) knowing a word means knowing its limitations of use according to function and situation,

7 knowing a word means knowing its place in a network of associations with other words in the language.

From the viewpoint of the present paper, an important aspect of lexical competence is constituted by the knowledge of networks of relations obtaining among the words. Research in memory suggests that words are stored and remembered in a network of associations. These associations can be of many types and be linked in a number of ways, not only by meaning, form and sound, but also by sight — we link similar shapes in our mind's eye — and by other parts of the context in which we have learned or experienced them. To know the word becomes the task of knowing its associations with other words, therefore to teach it most effectively we must present it in this network of associations. This claim contrasts with the prevailing practice in teaching vocabulary to import the knowledge of isolated words to the learners.

Elsewhere in pedagogical literature it is suggested that to learn an L_2 lexical item means to have the ability to associate it with the corresponding L_1 word. For example, Allen (1983: 74) observes that when "we say that the students know the word *family*, we mean that they have associated it with a word in their own language, the word that corresponds most closely to the English word *family*". Tomaszczyk (1983) argues that one does not really 'know' a foreign word until one can provide its L_1 equivalent. In the same vein, Carter (1987: 155–6) indicates that an important element in learning and retention of new words is the linking that can be established between a word in the target language and a cognate word in the mother tongue. He maintains that at the early stages of learning semantic and phonological links between L_1 and L_2 are more advantageous. At more advanced stages similarity in sound, morphology and etymology can assist word memorization.

Several conclusions can be drawn from the above discussion. First of all, learners of foreign vocabulary have to establish and retain in the process of L_2 vocabulary acquisition two types of associations 1) interlingual between L_1 and L_2 items, and 2) intralingual between L_2 items, the knowledge of L_1 intralingual relations being already a part of his lexical competence. For example, Polish learners of *borrow* and *lend* are disadvantaged in having the undifferentiated *pożyczyć* in their L_1. Even if the teaching syllabus were to present *borrow* and *lend* separately at different times, it is highly likely that the Polish learners will invest some effort in reassociating them, as soon as they contact with the second term. Thus they establish an interlingual association

between *pożyczyć* and each of the English words separately, and then the intralingual link between the latter two.

Another conclusion is that foreign learners' lexical competence is in actual fact their bilingual lexical competence, i.e. the knowledge of L_1 and L_2 vocabulary with the associations within and across them. The most important aspect of bilingual lexical competence is thus the knowledge of complex networks of associations between L_1 and L_2 vocabularies. Of primary importance are probably semantic links, since the acquisition of foreign vocabulary is by nature a representational process, as indicated above. Semantically linked pairs of words may be the basis of further links, distributional, stylistic, etc. Links between pairs of L_1/L_2 vocabulary items may be of a formal type, e.g. between cognate words and false friends. The types, the number of such associations relate to the problem of *tertium comparationis* and equivalence, which fall within the domain of contrastive lexicology.

It also follows from the above that the acquisition of L_2 vocabulary should not be viewed as a mere accumulation of L_2 words and memorization of their semantic, distributional and formal properties. Due share in the acquisition of L_2 vocabulary should be given to the establishing of links between L_1 and L_2 lexicons. In achieving this goal, teaching and learning based on systematic contrastive lexical analyses are of primary importance. The associations and relations between L_1 and L_2 lexicons are one of the most important aspects of bilingual lexical competence. Any approach that elucidates them and contributes to their development in the learners should then be advocated. In our opinion, contrastive lexical analysis is an approach like this[2].

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[2] A legitimate question to ask is why to bother about conducting contrastive lexical analyses when bilingual dictionaries are available. The answer is because they are deficient. The main reason for their inadequacy is that they try to meet all the needs of all categories of users which are diverse and eventually incompatible. They serve the needs of people who already have a good command of L_2, but are of little help to beginners and intermediate foreign language learners. Contrastive lexical analyses, by their nature covering smaller selected sections of L_1/L_2 lexicons, are more appropriate for teaching. Besides, contrastive lexical analyses aim at exhaustive enumeration of all similarities and differences thus providing reliable basis for error prediction and error explanation.

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LECH ZABOR

RECENT TRENDS IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS
AND THE STUDY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE APTITUDE

1. THE CLIMATE FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE APTITUDE RESEARCH

One of the main reasons why foreign language aptitude has been neglected in recent years is simply that people have become more interested in other issues. The most important point is that the issues which have received most attention have had unfavourable implications for the study of aptitude, since they have implied that it is (at best) of marginal significance (Krashen 1981), and (at worst) misconceived (Neufeld 1978).

The main lines of research have all concerned issues which tend to view all learners as the same. Within first language research there has been a considerable emphasis on the independence of a language capacity (Chomsky 1980). Such a capacity, although it requires exposure to language in order to operate, is able to transcend low quality or potentially unhelpful input to generate a language system. Such an approach characterised the early 1970s (McNeill 1970), and has reasserted itself recently with discussion of universal grammar, parameter setting, and learnability (Wexler 1982), emphasising once again the child's innate predisposition to learn language.

Similarly, in second language acquisition there has been a tremendous emphasis on universals of language processing. During the 1970s, this was most clearly seen in the work of Dulay and Burt (1974), when the Creative Construction hypothesis was put forward for second language acquisition. The emphasis was on universal innate mechanisms on the rule-governed nature of a language system whose acquisition followed natural sequences of a largely invariant nature, and whose internal structure was of greater importance than most environmental influences.

During the 1980s the details of the universal approach have changed somewhat, and there is a greater concern now with Universal Grammar (Cook 1985). Similarly, in models such as that of Krashen (1981) one sees what is labelled the 'Cognitive Organizers' Box, in which universal mechanisms are supposed to generate the rule-governed system of the target language. Still,

whatever the differences, the whole thrust of the Universal Grammar theory is to indicate the ways in which people are the same — everyone learns (acquires) languages in the same way, at least at the process level — to uncover how this learning takes place and what mechanisms are involved. Consequently, from a universal grammar perspective, people will not vary much both in first and subsequent language learning. But such differences exist. Are some people endowed, then, with 'more' of a universal grammar? Is it, perhaps, that it 'decays' more rapidly in some people than in others? Such difficult questions are now as relevant for foreign language learning as they are for first.

Other major trends in applied linguistics have also reduced the importance of individual differences. The period since 1970 has seen a great increase of interest in communicative approaches to language teaching (Brumfit and Johnson 1979). For practical language teachers progress has been synonymous with developing a range of communicative syllabuses, and courses. The effort, in other words, has been to develop more effective *global* techniques of instruction in which all learners can be benefited.

Most research into foreign language learning has emphasised instructional and methodological factors. In general this research has failed to find any clear indications that any particular method of foreign language instruction is superior to any other when global comparisons are made. The Pennsylvania Project (Smith 1970), for example, did not find any clear advantage for cognitive-code learning over audiolingual methods. Similarly, the York study on the effectiveness of the language laboratory (Green 1975) did not suggest any clear difference between children with access to a laboratory and those lacking such exposure. More recently, Davies and Beretta (1985) have reported results suggesting that a procedural syllabus, as implemented through the Bangalore Project, while slightly superior to traditional methods, is not superior in all domains of language learning.

In contrast, an alternative research tradition, that into characteristics of the language learner, has yielded more promising results in terms of being able to account for language learning success. Carroll (1965; 1982), for example, has consistently shown how important foreign language aptitude is for predictions of foreign language learning success in a classroom, while Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner (1986) have researched into differences in attitude and motivation, and demonstrated their importance for school-based learning, revealing an affective dimension for prediction clearly distinct from the cognitive abilities that make up aptitude. Similarly, research over the last two decades has confirmed that a variety of affective variables, such as self-confidence and anxiety may relate to success in second language acquisition. The concept of an Affective Filter was proposed by Dulay and Burt (1977) and later developed by Krashen (1981).

Another area which has received attention in the last decade is that of learner strategies. Naiman, Frohlich, Todesco and Stern (1978) have provided interesting data which helps characterise highly successful language learners, while Fillmore (1979) conducted a longitudinal study of a small group of Spanish-speaking children learning English in the first years of school. She proposes that several cognitive and social strategies account for the degree of success that the children achieved.

In terms of the role of foreign language aptitude equally interesting have been the studies of Reeves (1983), Wesche (1981), and Skehan (1982; 1986). Reeves (1983) investigated the role of several potential predictors of language learning success, i.e. aptitude, motivation, cognitive style, and learning strategies, in order to assess their relative importance. She investigated their influence in two situations — one informal and one formal. The informal setting involved the acquisition of Hebrew by L_1 Arabic speakers in Israel. The formal setting was of the same group of learners learning English under classroom conditions. Thus, the one group acted as its own control, and we have an experimental design calculated not simply to relate the different potential predictors, e.g. aptitude learning strategies, to one another, but also to reveal whether there is an interaction between some of the predictors and the context of language learning. Reeves found essentially that prediction was less effective in the informal learning environment, with generally lower levels of correlation between the single predictors and criterion measures. Such a result is unremarkable to the extent that it is widely supposed that there is less control or standardisation of learning conditions in the informal situation compared to the formal, so that it is more likely that extraneous influences will intrude, making the contribution of any single predictor smaller as 'success' would be accounted for by numerous alternative factors.

Wesche (1981) investigated aptitude methodology interactions, demonstrating that students identified as belonging to different "learner types" did particularly well when paired with appropriate methodologies, and particularly poorly when they were mismatched in terms of instructional conditions. On the basis of an aptitude battery which drew on Carroll's MLAT (Carroll, Sapon 1959) and Pimsleur's LAB (Pimsleur 1966), as well as interview and counselling information, participants in the public service language courses were assigned to one of three types of learner. The first of these was characterised as possessing high analytic abilities, scoring highly on the MLAT, Part 4, Words in Sentences, and the Pimsleur Language Analysis Test. A second group were identified as high in memory ability, as reflected in the Paired Associates and Number Learning subtests of the MLAT. Finally, a third group of students were characterised simply as having an even spread of abilities, with no particular strengths or weaknesses. The three groups of

students were assigned to three different methodologies. One of the methodologies stressed the analytic nature of the material to be learned, with students being encouraged to use relevant analytic skills. A second methodology was more situational in orientation, stressing the amount of material that had to be memorised, and using situationally based themes. Finally, a third methodology was of a more traditional audiovisual nature, following the general practice of such an approach and using dialogue presentation and manipulation exercises to develop language skills.

A related, but slightly different research study also investigated the use of aptitude profiling to identify different learner types. Skehan (1982; 1986) examined the aptitude characteristics of a group of learners engaged in intensive foreign language study in the British Armed Forces. The learners were administered some of the subtests from the MLAT together with a number of other tests of memory capacities specially developed for the research study (Skehan 1980). The resulting aptitude information, together with the criterion performance (a composite interview, interpreting, and translating test), were then subjected to a further analysis, whose goal was to identify common features amongst the variables of a study, and to find similarities between learners. The important aspect of the results is that three important groups of learners were so identified. The first group, a successful one, was characterised as having high language analytic abilities, and relatively average memories. A second successful group was composed of learners whose linguistic analytic abilities were fairly average, but who had good memories. Finally, a third group, or more accurately, series of groups, was composed of those individuals whose aptitude defined profiles were fairly flat. Several subgroups of this third group could be identified at various levels of success on the criterion test.

There is a striking degree of correspondence between the three groups independently arrived at in the Canadian study (Wesche 1981) and the British study (Skehan 1982; 1986). In both research projects, the groups which are thought to be significantly and functionally different from one another are composed of a group whose strength is in analysing language; a group who are most effective in assimilating, through effective memories, large amounts of material; and a third group of learners whose skills are fairly evenly balanced.

2. THE PLACE OF LANGUAGE APTITUDE AND OTHER LEARNER FACTORS IN SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The identification of the different factors influencing second language acquisition (SLA) has proved to be highly problematic. The main difficulty is that it is not possible to observe directly qualities such as aptitude, motivation, or anxiety. Each factor is not a unitary construct but a complex of features

which are manifest in a range of overlapping behaviours, and different researchers have used labels like 'aptitude' or 'motivation' to describe different sets of features. Schumann (1978) distinguishes nine groups of factors influencing SLA which consist of around fifty factors. We shall mention only those which refer to individual learner differences. These are aptitude, cognitive, personality, affective and social factors. Hawkey (1982) lists some of learner factors: 'affective, cognitive, and social' (Tucker et al. 1976), 'affective and ability factors' (Chastain 1975), 'attitudinal, motivational characteristics' (Gardner et al. 1979).

According to Ellis (1986) the main point here is that there are two basic possibilites regarding which aspect of SLA is affected by individual learner factors. One is that differences in age, learning style, aptitude, motivation and personality result in the differences in the *route* along which learners pass in SLA. The other is that these factors affect only the *rate* and ultimate *success* of SLA (Ellis 1986: 99).

It is not controversial to claim that individuals vary in the rate at which they learn, or the level of competence they eventually attain, however, it is far more controversial to claim that individual differences influence the sequence or order in which linguistic knowledge is acquired. As a result there are disagreements about the role of individual differences including aptitude in SLA. As Fillmore (1979) points out, on the one hand individual differences are seen as an all-important factor, while on the other they are treated as relatively insignificant. Research which has concentrated on accounting for differences in the proficiency levels of learners has tended to emphasise the importance of individual learner factors. Research which has tried to examine the process of SLA has tended to play down their importance.

In our discussion of learner factors it is perhaps important to note a distinction made by Ellis (1986) between *personal* and *general factors*. Personal factors are highly idiosyncratic features of each individual's approach to learning an L_2. They include (1) group dynamics, (2) attitudes to the teacher, and (3) individual learning techniques. The general factors are variables that are characteristic of all learners. They differ not in whether they are present in a particular individual's learning, but in the extent to which they are present, or the manner in which they are realised. General factors can be further divided into those that are modifiable (i.e. are likely to change during the course of SLA), such as motivation, and those that are unmodifiable (i.e. do not change in strength or nature as SLA takes place), such as aptitude. They include (1) age, (2) aptitude, (3) cognitive style, (4) motivation, and (5) personality.

Foreign language aptitude, as other learner factors, has several aspects; cognitive, affective and social. Cognitive and affective aspects are internal to the learner (e.g. problem solving strategies, emotional response aroused by
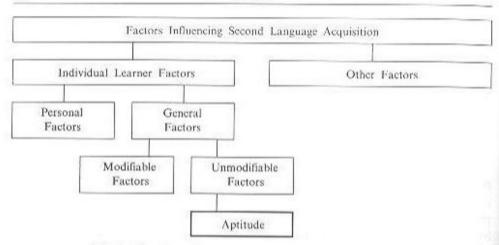
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Fig. 1. The place of aptitude among factors influencing SLA

attempts to learn an L_2), while social aspects are external to the learner (e.g. the relationship between the learner and native speakers of the L_2). Aptitude is thought of as primarily cognitive in nature, but it also involves affective and social aspects. Similarly, personality is primarily affective, but also has social and cognitive sides. It is because the learner factors are composed of social, cognitive, and affective features that are extremely complex and often difficult to define.

3. THE COMPONENTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE APTITUDE

In the present section the basic components of foreign language aptitude will be briefly analysed for their roles in language learning. It is assumed, after Carroll (1982) and Skehan (1986), that foreign language aptitude consists of three major constituents: language analysis capacity, auditory ability and memory. For simplicity of presentation we will combine different elements of language aptitude presented in such batteries as the MLAT and the PLAB into one of the three groups. Thus, language analysis capacity refers to Carroll's 'grammatical sensitivity' and 'inductive language learning ability' and Pimsleur's 'language analytic ability', whereas auditory ability may include 'sound discrimination' and 'sound-symbol associations' (PLAB) and 'phonetic script' (MLAT). It seems that language analysis capacity is the fundamental and most complex foreign language component, which, in particular, calls for a detailed study. It is a capacity to analyse, to process language input, and to respond to the systematic, rule-governed nature of language, rather than the ability to verbalise any rules. The primary concern is about the nature of this component. For Carroll (1965; 1982) it is basically 'grammatical sensitivity' and 'inductive

learning ability' although it does not imply a knowledge of grammatical terminology or a metalanguage. It refers to the intuitive capacity to interpret grammatical relationships to isolate linguistic forms from their particular context, pay attention to morphological, syntactic and semantic features of a language and to develop patterns regularities and rules from linguistic materials. This type of ability is measured in the subtest of the MLAT — Words in Sentences. Test takers are presented with a set of key sentences in which a word or a phrase is underlined. In a sentence following each key sentence four alternative words or phrases are underlined, and the test taker must select the one that performs the same function as the item from the model sentence. No grammatical terminology is used in the test. Here is an example:

He spoke VERY well of you.
Suddenly the music became quite loud.
      1   2   3   4

In second language acquisition learners are required to process language, in infer how other forms would be expressed, to develop sensitivity to how words, phrases, and sentences are put together. The capacity to handle this sort of task may be even more important to the extent that without instruction, or with inadequate instruction the learner must rely more on his own devices without the help of the teacher. In consequence, one would expect a language analytic ability to be an important source of prediction and understanding of the language learning process.

The role of auditory factors is important in relation to the input that the learners receive. Numerous second language researchers (Long 1985; Krashen 1985) have argued for the importance of the input in language learning. Long has seen input as constituting a necessary condition for language learning. In contrast, Krashen has claimed that of the five hypotheses he proposes to account for second language acquisition the Input Hypothesis (Krashen 1981) is preeminent, and the driving force for the development of the second language system. In other words, for Long, input is but one factor among others, for Krashen it is the essential factor.

The important point is that with either interpretation it is crucial for language learning progress that the learner should be able to cope with the auditory material that is directed at him. The learner's capacity to handle the auditory nature of the input is very important to the extent that the more input is converted into intake, the faster learning/acquisition takes place.

In speech perception research it is common to encounter the distinction between 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' processing (Lindsay, Norman (1977; Anderson 1985). The former concerns processing abilities which are 'imposed' on the data as a result of cognitive abilities and schemata enabling the

hearer to make predictions about the input. The latter, 'bottom-up' processing, is concerned with the perceiver's ability to operate upon the raw material of the stimulus, to be 'stimulus driven'. In terms of the second language learner's ability to transform input into intake (Corder 1973), it is clear that both 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' processing will be implicated. In the former case, the learner's schematic knowledge (Widdowson 1983) and skill in predicting the content of what is being heard is important, as well as the level of development of the learner's language system for prediction and analysis on the basis of competence in language structure. In addition to the 'top-down' factors, it is also important to consider differences in learners' abilities to operate upon the stimulus material. Some learners will be more effective than others in making relevant auditory discriminations, in analysing the sounds they hear. Some will be more able to segment the incoming language, to respond to prosodic and intonation features of language. Some will be able to process material more quickly, to purge short-term memory more quickly to be ready for additional discourse (Clark and Clark 1977). Some will be able to access potential 'areas' in long-term memory to identify elements in incoming material.

While it cannot be claimed that phonemic coding ability, as this construct is operationalised in the existing test batteries, is a validated measure of this range of 'bottom-up' capacities, it is, however, the best index available. Definitely, it still requires further research based on the insights provided by cognitive psychology and speech perception, to provide improved measures. If it is accepted that maximising the amount of input that is converted into intake is important, then some measure of the efficiency of 'bottom-up' and 'top-down' processes is of great importance.

Finally, in terms of the components of aptitude there is the role of memory. Basically, the role that memory is seen to have is dependent on one's theory of language. At the simplest level, one might suppose that language learning involves the acquisition of a grammatical code, a code that consists of syntactic rules, or grammatical slots, into which lexical elements or fillers fit. Even if one takes this viewpoint, the vocabulary learning load is considerable. There may be problems in acquiring sufficient control or automatisation of rules, but these will be problems over quite limited areas. In contrast, the learning of a great mass of lexis poses quite different problems, where the difficulties relate to the large quantify of unorganised material which can only be learned bit by bit. But this is only one viewpoint on the learning of language.

An alternative is that language is not simply a matter of a relatively few rules used repeatedly, supplemented with lexical elements. Instead, it has been argued (Bolinger 1975; Peters 1983) that learning and operating language may not be done following the categories such as syntax, which have been

identified as useful for linguists. Instead, the 'units of language acquisition' (Peters 1983) may involve duplication and inefficiency in storage with these features, although requiring a different sort of memory system.

In any case, the conclusion we can draw here is that whatever view of language learning we choose to adopt, whether it emphasises syntactic organisation or lexical organisation, the vocabulary learning load is likely to be considerable. It is also likely that vocabulary load, within a structural orientation, although not heavy at beginning stages, increases dramatically as one gets to 'intermediate' levels and beyond. When one reaches higher levels of accomplishment there is an explosion in the amount of lexical control that is thought to be required. And such a command of vocabulary seems to be particularly important where fluency and communicative effectiveness are concerned.

Another aspect of the discussion of the roles of memory and vocabulary growth concerns learning in formal and informal contexts. The two settings are different to the extent that the former implies control on the part of teachers and course designers while the latter does not imply very much potential guidance — one is exposed to new vocabulary as the function of the settings in which one encounters and uses the target language (Krashen 1981). The difference is simply that the learner has to decide himself which aspect of the lexical system has to be learned, and how they should be assimilated. However, the central problem in formal and informal settings is exactly the same — how one copes with the enormous scale of vocabulary learning, especially at intermediate to advanced levels, and how one uses one's abilities to accomplish this. It would seem that for the informal situation, as well as the formal, the possession of a good memory and effective strategies of memory use are of fundamental importance (Naiman et al. 1978). Those who can absorb vocabulary at a faster rate are going to be at an advantage to those who cannot. It is even more possible that this ability may be important in the informal situation (Skehan 1986), and the learner is therefore more dependent on his own strengths without the compensating guidance of the teacher. In either case, it seems very likely that individual differences in memory will be very significant in foreign language learning.

To recapitulate, then, we can see that each of the components of foreign language aptitude is relevant to language learning. With a language analytic ability we may be dealing with a fundamental capacity for language processing; with auditory ability we may have a capacity to maximise intake; and with memory we have the ability to assimilate the unavoidably large quantities of material that are integral to learning and using a target language.

Those various studies surveyed above have been very important in terms of individual differences that may account for variation in second and foreign

language achievement. It seems that the improvement in the efficiency if prognostications can be achieved through a greater specificity of the criteria against which prognosis could be judged, a greater range of factors to be incorporated in the test and an overall improvement in the accuracy of measurement.

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LECH ZABOR, JACEK SŁUPSKI

SETTING UP AN ENTRANCE TEST:
SOME REMARKS ON TEST VALIDITY

In educational setting language tests provide information for making a wide variety of decisions. One way of looking at language tests is according to the type of decision to be made. Thus we can distinguish:

(1) *selection entrance tests* — with regard to admission decisions,

(2) *placement and diagnostic tests* — with regard to identifying the appropriate instructional level or specific areas in which instruction is needed,

(3) *progress or achievement tests* — with respect to decisions about how individuals should proceed through the programme, or how well they are attaining the programme's objectives.

(Bachman 1990)

In an ideal situation a particular test is developed for each type of decision, e.g. admitting candidates to the programme. However, an efficient language test can be developed for more than one specific aim, provided the validity of each separate, potential use is adequately demonstrated.

The first decision that is usually made about students is whether or not they should enter the programme. In many programmes entrance is nearly automatic with age, as in primary schools, or for all eligible candidates who wish to enrol, as in some technical universities in Poland. Other programmes, however, require a selection or entrance test. If the purpose of the test is to determine whether or not students are ready for instruction it may be referred to as a *readiness test*. In many countries nationwide university entrance examinations are used for deciding which students to accept into academic programmes, e.g. *the Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL). In Poland, also some secondary comprehensive schools are beginning to use language entrance tests in deciding which students to admit to special intensive foreign language classes.

The problem of entrance test development is worth examining for two reasons. In Poland there is no standardised system of entrance testing at secondary schools, colleges or universities. All admission tests are

teacher-made, designed at the local level. With the growing autonomy of educational establishments the issue of designing efficient selection procedures is receiving more and more attention from language teachers, educationists, and other people professionally involved in test writing and administrating. Additionally, entrance testing is unique in that it creates the one and only opportunity to make a decision that will affect an individual's future learning. Language testers' responsibility is much greater in this case as opposed to regular achievement testing at the end of the course since the candidate applying for admission to the programme has no immediate possibility of re-taking the test. The following figure illustrates the educational context of language testing.
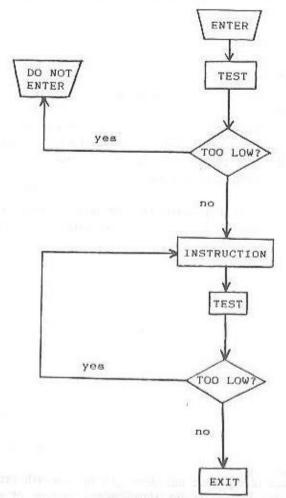

Figure 1. Adapted from Upshur (1973)

In designing an entrance test, the test developer may choose to base the content either on a theory of language proficiency or on the learning objectives of the syllabus to be taken (Bachman 1990). In a situation where students enter the programme from a wide variety of language backgrounds and prior language experience, and in which the syllabus contains the full range of skills of language proficiency, it may be quite difficult to specify a set of objectives clearly enough to provide a basis for test development. In this case, the test developer may choose to design a test based on a theory of language proficiency and determine selection according to a norming procedure. If, on the other hand, the aims of the programme are clearly specified and sequenced, the test developer is more likely to develop a multi-level test based on the content objectives of the programme. In this case, criteria for mastery can be set for each level of test content, thus making it possible to admit students into the level according to the extent to which they have already acquired the skills taught at this level of the programme.

A language test must be based on a clear definition of language abilities either from a general theory of language ability (i.e. what does it mean to know a language?) or a language teaching syllabus (i.e. what should the students know before, during, or at the end of a language programme?). It turns out that designing an entrance test, and for that matter, any language test, is a rather complex undertaking in which we often attempt to measure abilities that are not precisely defined. We shall look at some aspects of setting up an entrance test in terms of one of its fundamental qualities, that is test validity.

The concept of test validity is not new in psychological and language testing. A valid test is usually described as one measuring what it is supposed to measure and nothing else (cf Davis 1968, Allen and Davies 1977). Usually five types of validity are distinguished: content, construct, predictive, concurrent and face. In this article we shall concentrate upon the first three aspects of test validity, as they directly refer to selection procedures. In other words, we shall attempt to consider the following questions (cf Cronbach 1961):

(1) Does the test give a fair measure of performance on some important set of tasks? — content validity.

(2) Do test scores permit an estimate of a certain present performance? — construct validity.

(3) Do test scores predict a certain important future performance? — predictive validity.

Content validity. In developing a test we usually begin by setting exact standards for each particular situation. What standards, for example, should be demanded of foreign language learners after a few years of language instruction? Should we expect secondary school graduates who want to study a foreign language at the university level to communicate with the same ease

and fluency as native speakers? Should primary school graduates who wish to continue language learning attain the intermediate or advanced level of proficiency in the foreign language?

It seems that such expectations are most unrealistic taking into account a general shortage of foreign language teachers in Poland and the overall poor level of instruction. In view of these facts, we may think that entrance tests designed at the local level tend to set artificial standards, which results in poor content validity. Having analysed several selection tests administered in Wrocław secondary schools we have noticed that language tests used for the purpose of selecting candidates display such a variety of approaches and concepts of testing that one might think that have been designed for entirely different groups of testees, ranging from elementary to advanced learners. Let us now consider some authentic examples of translation items from various tests (we have preserved the original spelling and punctuation).

I. Translate into English.
1. Pozwól mi wytłumaczyć co ty musisz zrobić.
....
2. To jest historia o chłopcu, który zaprzyjaźnia się z motylem, którego znalazł w ogrodzie.
....
3. O co oni walczą, wydaje się, że nikt nie wie.
....
4. Te dzieci nigdy nie płaczą one zawsze śmieją się szczęśliwie.
....
5. Nie mówmy głośno!
....
6. Chciałbym, abyście palili w drugim pokoju nie tutaj.
....
7. Nie potrzebuję prosić nikogo o pomoc, sam to zrobię.
....

II. Uzupełnij podane niżej tłumaczenia na j. angielski. Nie wolno zmieniać niczego we fragmentach zdań podanych już w j. angielskim. Uzupełnień wolno dokonywać tylko w miejscach wykropkowanych.
1. To co lubię najbardziej to jazda samochodem.
....
2. Nie udawaj (pretend), że nie wiesz ile lat ma Twoja sympatia.
....
3. Czy rozmawiałeś już z nim?
Have .... him ....
4. „Idź do fryzjera i ostrzyż się. " „Masz za długie włosy."
„Your ...."
5. Jak już przeczytasz tę książkę, czy pożyczysz mi ją?
Once ....

6. Żaden z polityków którzy brali udział w dyskusji nie przekonał mnie (convince).
None ....
7. Chciałbym wiedzieć dlaczego zmuszono (make) go do napisania takiego okropnego listu.
I'd like to know .... letter.

Surprisingly enough the two translation tasks are not taken from the same test. In fact, the first one comes from the school entrance test administered in one of Wrocław secondary schools for 15-year-old primary school graduates and the other is just a random selection of test items from the entrance examination to the English Department at Łódź University. If we consider standards required of prospective university students of English, it is probably justified to demand from them some rudimentary translation skills. On the other hand, it is questionable whether the standards were properly set in the case of the secondary school test. It is irrational to expect from elementary or pre-intermediate learners of English the ability to produce in translation such complex sentences as *What they fight about/for/over nobody seems to understand*. Such test items would probably be valid in the final 'maturity' examination rather than in the entrance test. After all, if we demand the testees to know so much before the beginning of the course as they probably should know after the course, then what is the purpose of teaching the language? Language testing is not like a free-market economy and language testers should not act according to supply-demand principle: the more candidates, the more difficult the test. Regardless of what the immediate purpose of our testing is: norm-referenced (comparing the behaviour of an individual with the behaviours of others) or criterion-referenced (describing the behaviour of an individual with reference to externally specified objectives), the primary concern should always be validity — the proper standard (for the discussion on norm-referenced versus criterion-referenced testing see, e.g. Pilliner 1973).

The next step in designing a test is defining its content, or ability domain, or at least a list of content areas from which we design test tasks (content coverage). From the prospective of the test developer the usual procedure to follow in designing a test is random sampling. The primary concern here is the extent to which the tasks and testing items required in the test adequately represent the domain in question and how random the sampling procedure is. No matter which base we choose for developing the test — either a general theory of learning proficiency or the particular objectives of the syllabus to be taken — we should not forget the fundamental aspect of language validity: Do we test what we want to test? The problem with random sampling is usually twofold: (1) the test fails to cover some relevant items that should be included, (2) the test comprises some items irrelevant to the purpose of testing. Let us consider a task from the already quoted entrance test to one of the secondary

schools in Wrocław (other examples presented in this article have also been taken from the above test).

III. Put the verbs in brackets into the correct form.
1. Yesterday while I (swim) someone (steal) my clothes.
....
2. What you generally (do) for living?
....
3. I (not/see) him since he (stop) working for our company.
....
4. While I (do) my best to solve that problem Jan (discuss) some unimportant matters.
....

As we can see this subtest attempts to measure the usage of the four English tenses: the Present Simple Tense (What do you do?), the Present Perfect Tense (I haven't seen him since...), the Past Continuous Tense (... while I was swimming...), and the Past Simple Tense (... someone stole my clothes.). The question that one might ask here is: Why does the teacher want to test the usage of those four tenses and not, for example, the Present Continuous and the Future Simple Tenses which usually take a lot of time in the teaching programme in primary schools? Here are some more examples.

IV. Put in the correct preposition.
1. Please fill ... this form.
2. Cheers! Let's drink ... your success.
3. I must say I do not like to have a date with you because you never come ... time.

Again, the question that arises here is: Why does the subtest examine expressions like *fill in/up/out a form* or *drink to sb's success*? Is the choice based on the frequency of occurrence or the primary school teaching programme? The next example leads to another question about content validity. Is spelling the essential ability that we want to measure in the admission examination?

V. Which is wrong?
  (a) thirteen
  (b) fifty-five
  (c) twenty-six
  (d) seven thousand
  (e) fourty.

The conclusion may be that although test item sampling is usually random it should not be too random, disregarding the basic principles of test construction.

Another aspect of language testing which is potentially a source of trouble for test developers and which often affects internal test validity is the choice of elicitation procedures. The most common testing techniques used by teachers are transformation items (e.g. rephrasing), completion items (filling blanks, finishing sentences), translation items and open-ended questions. Even such

relatively easy testing items as multiple choice tasks may be a source of confusion for the testees. Here is another test item.

VI. Which word is different. Choose the word.
1. sight-seeing   watching   looking at   wandering
....

Probably the tester's attention was focused on *wandering* as it is different from the other words in the sense that they have the common meaning 'use the sight'. However, the instruction does not specify in what way one of these words is different so our first tentative choice was *looking at* as it is followed by a preposition while the other words are not. Our second choice was *sight-seeing* because of the spelling. We were tempted to think that way because the other item in this subtest explicitly examines the form of the words and not the content (at least we think so!):

2. nurse   hungry   angry   careful
....

Giving unclear instructions and more than one correct answer are quite common testers' sins committed also by native speakers. Usually the best and almost universal solution is pre-testing.

Similarly, even such a well-established communicative technique of testing oral performance as role-play may occasionally be applied inadequately if it is used, for example, in testing writing instead of speaking. In such a form all its authenticity and efficiency are lost. In this case, asking students to write a letter or a note would be a preferred solution.

VIII. You are a teacher. When you walk into the classroom you see that one student is crying at his desk. You ask him why he is so upset.
....
....
You sit down on a chair. Suddenly you realize that you are sitting on your friend's hat. The hat is ruined and you apologize to your friend offering to buy him a new hat.
....
....

Construct and predictive validity. Another aspect of test validity we have to take into account when designing a test is construct validity. It concerns the extent to which performance in tests is consistent which predictions that we make on the basis of a theory of abilities, or constructs (Bachman 1990). If we assume that a test estimates how much of something an individual possesses or displays, the basic question of construct validation is about the nature of that something (cf Messick 1975). In language testing the abilities that we want to measure are usually not directly noticeable, but must be inferred on the basis of observable performance. We can only hypothesize that those abilities affect

the language use and performance in language tests. Thus, the primary question is about the extent to which we can make inferences about hypothesised abilities on the basis of test performance. Obviously, the first step towards accomplishing this is to identify and define the set of abilities that we want to measure in a given test, in other words to define a construct. If we want to know how good a person is at translating texts or sentences from his or her own language into a foreign language we set up a task in which he or she just does that — we give them a text to translate. Furthermore, if translation is what the teaching process is designed to produce, it is obviously a valid language task. But it may be that translation is simply a convenient technique of testing e.g. grammar and not an underlining ability in the authentic language use.

The primary use of information obtained from an entrance test results lies in determining how well the scores predict some future behaviour. In order to examine the predictive validity of test scores in such cases, we would need to define the relationship between the entrance exam and course performance, e.g. by calculating the correlation coefficient between the selection test results and the proficiency test results administered after the first year of language study. The view that language ability as being able to do something is linked to prediction, is naturally some sort of simplification. According to Upshur

> A test score (task value) is a numerical representation of a unidimensional ability (language proficiency) which is a mapping of a single psychological state (language knowledge?), and this ability (proficiency) is applicable to any situation; in the case that some situations require more of it than others, one simply accepts differential validity coefficients.
>
> (Upshur 1979: 85)

One of the reasons for that simplification is perhaps test designers' inability to identify and measure all the abilities that are relevant to the criterion. For example, are the current levels of ability, motivation and aptitude all equally related to future achievement? Are they related to each other? What about some other dimensions in these relationships such as the test method or the context of the predicted behaviour? All this leads to the ultimate indeterminacy of the relationship between predictions and the behaviour to be predicted. This is a difficult problem for prediction in general, and in prediction of language achievement on the basis of language ability in particular. Cattell describes this problem as follows:

> ... the correlation of a test now with a criterion next year has a host of determinants among which the properties of the test may well be insignificant... Future prediction, after all, requires knowledge of the natural history of the trait, the laws of psychology and (not least!) the changing life situations...
>
> (Cattell 1964: 10)

However, in situations like the entrance examinations where the primary interest is in predictive utility rather than in any theoretical considerations

we would rather view test scores (language proficiency) as a pragmatic ascription ('someone is proficient') than a theoretical construct representing human capacity ('someone has proficiency'). This distinction, introduced by Upshur (1979) is also reflected in the way we may use test scores. If we view language ability as a pragmatic ascription then test scores are seen as an indication that a student 'is able to do X' in the language, and the test is a pragmatic prediction device rather than an indicator of potential ability.

Occasionally test designers try to 'improve' predictive validity of the test by incorporating subtests or questionnaires that do not measure language proficiency but such factors as grade point average or motivation (see e.g. Pimsleur's *Language Aptitude Battery — LAB*). Our feeling is that such forms of eliciting students' motivation or interests are often unreliable. Students invariably seem to display extraordinarily high motivation and deep interests in the language, or at least pretend to do so. Besides, if we ask them to answer questions in the foreign language they may feel really puzzled; what is it that is being tested — motivation, the language or a specific knowledge? Here is an example.

X. Answer the questions in the whole sentences.
1. What do you find most difficult when learning English?
....
2. How do you try to help yourself with this difficulty?
....
3. Your opinion on tests.
....
4. What makes you study English?
....
5. Do you think older students find it more difficult to learn a foreign language than children. Explain.
....

Conclusions. The immediate conclusion is that writing an entrance test is not an easy task. Having been actively involved in designing and administering various types of language tests for many years, we have been at the same time exposed to criticism and realization of our mistakes. The purpose of this article is not to criticize but rather to discuss and make some suggestions about better test development. In our opinion the following guidelines may be hepful in test design:

(1) base the content of your test either on an external theory of language proficiency or on the learning objectives of the syllabus to be taken,

(2) set exact standards for your test,

(3) define language abilities you want to test,

(4) specify the content/sampling procedure,

(5) specify the elicitation procedures.

Once we have analysed the initial phases of test development we can start designing specific test items. And although writing a good test is an enormous task which requires knowledge, experience and intuition, being conscious of all the traps and difficulties awaiting a test developer is the first step towards overcoming them.

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REVIEWS

F. L. Bachman: **Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing.**
Oxford University Press, London 1990, XI + 408 pp.

The book consists of eight parts: 1. Introduction, 2. Measurement, 3. Uses of Language Tests, 4. Communicative Language Ability, 5. Test Methods, 6. Reliability, &. Validation, 8. Some Persistent Problems and Future Directions. In the first chapter Bachman considers a general context for the discussion of language testing. She draws on recent research in language acquisition and language teaching emphasising the importance of reciprocal relationship between research in language acquisition developments in language teaching on the one hand, and language testing on the other. Language tests are frequently used as criterion measures of language abilities in SLA research. They can also be valuable sources of information about the effectiveness of learning and teaching. Similarly, language acquisition research and language teaching practice can provide valuable information for designing more useful tests (e.g. the effects of cognitive and personal characteristics on performance on various types of language tests (Hansen and Stansfield 1981). The advances in language testing, it is argued, do not take place in a vacuum, but they are stimulated by advances in our understanding of the process of language acquisition and language teaching. In the introduction the author also gives an overview of the book, addressing some problems discussed in the following chapters such as: defining language abilities, characterising test authenticity, applications of measurement theory to language testing.

In chapter 2 and 3 Bachman discusses a number of fundamental measurement terms and concepts necessary for quantification of observations and the purposes for which language tests are intended. She points out the essential difference between measurements or tests and evaluation. Language tests are designed to elicit a specific example of behaviour and are by definition quantitative. Evaluation involves decision making and is by nature qualitative. The two essential qualities of measurement are validity and reliability. The first one is a quality of test interpretations and use and views test results in terms of how meaningful and useful they are for a particular purpose. Reliability is

a quality of test scores and concerns the extent to which they are free from measurement error. Both of these qualities are relative in a sense that the level that is acceptable for each depends on factors in the specific language testing situation, such as the type of decision to be made, or interpretation of test scores. To facilitate both measurement and evaluation the author describes four types of scales: nominal, ordinal, interval and ratio which are based on the following properties of measurement — distinctiveness, ordering, equal intervals and an absolute zero point.

In the final part of chapter 2, Bachman, unlike many other authors, focuses her attention on the fundamental issue in all types of measurements: the fact that in both the design of tests and the interpretation of test scores we necessarily simplify the observations we make. Our interpretation of test scores is also limited because our observations of performance are often incomplete, imprecise and subjective. In order to minimize the effects of these limitations and to maximize the validity and reliability of language tests she claims that we should take into account the following principles in the development of tests:

(1) provide clear and unambiguous theoretical definitions of the abilities we want to measure,

(2) specify precisely the conditions, or operations that will follow in eliciting and observing performance, and

(3) quantify observations so as to assure that measurements provide the essential linkage between the abilities we want to measure and observations of performance.

This can guarantee a greater assurance we must have that our test scores are valid and reliable, since the decisions we make will affect people and programmes. In educational programmes we are generally concerned with two types of decision. Decisions about individuals include decisions about entrance, placement, diagnosis, progress, and grading. Decisions about programmes are concerned with such characteristics as the appropriateness, effectiveness, or efficiency of the programme.

The final part of chapter 3 is a clear account of different types of language tests according to such features as: (1) use (e.g. placement, progress), (2) the content upon which they are based (e.g. achievement, proficiency), (3) the frame of reference for interpreting test results (norm, criterion), (4) the scoring procedure (subjective, objective), and (5) specific testing method (e.g. cloze, multiple-choice). To sum up, chapters 2 and 3 provide a most authoritative survey of fundamental issues in measurements and decision making in language testing.

Chapter 4 and 5 are perhaps the most interesting and original parts of the book. They both present a theory of factors that influence performance on language tests. The proper understanding of these factors and how they affect

test scores is essential to the development and use of language tests. Bachman assumes after Widdowson (1983) and Candlin (1986) that communicative language ability involves both knowledge of the language (competence) and the capacity for implementing (using) this competence. However, she attempts to extend the previous models by characterising the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language use occurs. That framework provides a means for characterising the constructs that constitute the content of language testing. In brief, communicative language ability consists of language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence includes organizational competence, which consists of grammatical and textual competence, and pragmatic competence, which consists of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence. Strategic competence is seen as the capacity that relates language competence, or knowledge of language, to the language user's knowledge structures and the features of the context in which communication takes place. Strategic competence performs assessment, planning, and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal. Psychophysiological mechanisms involved in language use characterise the channel (auditory, visual) and mode (receptive, productive) in which competence is implemented.

In addition to the abilities we want to measure, it is evident that test performance is also affected by the characteristics of the methods used to elicit specific language behaviours. If we consider the variety of testing techniques that are used nowadays and the differences among those techniques, it is obvious that test methods vary in many respects. Some test takers find a particular technique extremely difficult or intimidating, while at the same time performing well on other tests based on different techniques. Bachman states that if we are to understand the ways in which test methods influence test performance, it is necessary to examine the various dimensions, or facets, of test methods. Chapter 5 concerns a description of a framework for characterising the facets of test method. They can be divided into four groups: (1) the testing environment — the extent to which the test taker is familiar with the place, the equipment used for testing and conditions of the test administration, (2) the test rubric — the test organization, time allocation and instructions, (3) input — the nature of the language employed, the degree of speededness, (4) expected response — channel, type and form of response.

The next two chapters, 6 and 7, explore the two basic concepts of language testing: reliability and validity. Bachman takes a rather different perspective on these two concepts. Instead of considering them as two entirely distinct qualities, she recognizes them as complementary aspects of a common concern in measurement — identifying, estimating, and controlling the effects of factors

that influence test scores. The investigation of reliability is viewed here from the perspective of the effects of measurement error on an individual's test performance, whereas validity, on the other hand, is examined in terms of the effects of the individual's language abilities on his performance. These concerns of reliability and validity lead to two complementary objectives in designing and developing tests:

(1) to minimize the effects of measurement error, and

(2) to maximize the effects of the language abilities we want to measure.

It is evident that we must take into account errors of measurement, because we know that test performance is affected by a variety of largely unsystematic and unpredictable factors such as lack of motivation, poor health, or fatigue. The less these factors affect test scores, the greater the relative effect of the language abilities we want to measure, i.e. the reliability of test scores. Measurement theory provides several models that specify the relationships between observed scores and factors that affect these scores. Bachman relates those models to general perspectives on the nature of reliability, discussing in detail the limitations of the classical models and the attempt to overcome those limitations in such more recent models as the *generalizability theory* and the *item-response theory*. Chapter 7 sets out to analyse the process of validation. Bachman emphasises the continuous aspect of this process which involves both logical analysis and empirical investigation and different ways of gathering evidence for the validity of test interpretations: content, validity, criterion validity, construct validity. In conclusion, she states that language testing occurs in an educational and social setting, therefore we need to move beyond applied linguistic and psychometric theories and consider language tests in terms of the social and political functions, the practical usefulness and the consequences of testing.

The last chapter is devoted almost entirely to the most persistent problems in language testing connected with the relationship between the language use required by tasks on language tests and that which is part of our everyday communicative use of language. If there is no such relationship language tests become, as the author says, 'sterile procedures' that tell us almost nothing about the abilities we try to measure. Language testers usually follow the two approaches for attempting to describe test 'authenticity'. In one approach we identify the 'real life' language use that we expect will be required of testees, and with this as a criterion, attempt to design language tasks that reflect this. The primary concerns are here the extent to which language test scores predict future language performance and the degree to which language tasks operate like the 'real life' language tasks we have identified as criteria. This approach, however, is extremely difficult to implement because of the complexities of 'real-life' language use which is hard to define and largely unpredictable, especially

in situations in which test takers' language needs are diverse. For this reason, tests developed through this approach cannot be used to make inferences about levels of language ability. In the other approach to examine the essential features of communicative language use we attempt to identify the two sets of features: the abilities required for successful communicative language use and the characteristics of the situation that determines the nature of the interaction between the language user, the context, and the discourse. These features become the basis for a framework of communicative language abilities and development of language test tasks. The primary concerns here are with designing language tasks that engage the testees in communicative language use and with the construct validity of test scores. This approach is more demanding, in that it requires a theoretical framework and a programme of construct validation, yet it can provide empirical evidence for interpreting test scores as indicators of language abilities.

Although these two approaches are different in terms of test development and test scores interpretation they may lead to the same types of language test. An integration of the two approaches is possible if we start developing a test through the 'real life' approach, using a framework of specified language abilities and test methods, followed by a programme of construct validation research. To satisfy the growing demand for suitable language tests for making decisions about foreign language learners and teaching methods, the author proposes the development of a set of 'common metric' tests that would yield scores independent of the objectives of specific language courses and comparable across a wide range of languages and language use contexts. Such tests, she maintains, would need to be based on criterion-referenced scales of language abilities, which would also involve a programme of empirical research to determine the number of intermediate levels on each scale and the applicability of such scales across different groups of language learners.

Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing is not another practical book on how to write a language test. Such publications have been available for many years, e.g. Oller (1979), Cohen (1980), Heaton (1988), to mention just a few. Instead it provides a thorough and authoritative analysis of the basic issues which underline the development and use of language tests as well as a clear overview of an up-to-date research on testing. The author, first of all, attempts to answer questions regarding the development and use of language tests by providing a conceptual basis for test design in terms of three broad areas:

(1) the context that determines the use of language tests,

(2) the nature of the language abilities we want to measure, and

(3) the nature of measurement.

The other objective Bachman is trying to explore is the unique characteristic of language tests and a source of difficulties for language testers — that

language is both the instrument and the object of measurement. Therefore, she argues, we need to develop a framework for describing the characteristics of both the language abilities we want to measure and of the methods we use to measure these abilities. This volume is invaluable for students on applied linguistics and teacher training courses, teachers and educationists professionally involved in designing and administering foreign language tests.

Reviewed by Lech Zabor

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J. Soars, L. Soars: **Headway Upper Intermediate.**
Oxford University Press, London 1987, 136 pp.

1. REASONS FOR SKILL INTEGRATION

Headway — one of the bestsellers of the teaching materials' market, hitting the top of the ranking lists all across Europe. The question arises whether it really is such an ideal coursebook, the one we have all been waiting for since the onset of the "communicative revolution in language teaching". Some teachers treat it as a new Bible, a source book giving ready answers and remedies to all the problems nagging them in their teaching careers. Others complain that it is "too good to be true", "a collection of someone's favourite lessons". The remaining minority dare to be more critical and notice some weak points of that seemingly ideal book. This is why the whole thing is certainly worth having a closer look at, especially in the context of its usefulness at the university level (as it has been introduced as the basis for teaching the four integrated skills of speaking, reading, listening and writing in some Universities and Teacher Trainer Colleges in our country).

Successful skills integration has become one of the most important aspects of the idea of communicative language teaching, being perceived as a breakaway from the "traditional classroom" approach where the teacher relied entirely on a neatly prepared and laid out text which formed the basis for further grammatical analysis and gave ready examples of structures to be practised later on. The communicative approach, in turn, has lured with a vision of the integrated development of all four major language skills — listening, reading, speaking and writing — thus abandoning the idea of teaching them for their own sake but rather constantly combining and integrating them in use; such an approach has been meant to result not in developing four separate skills but their combination involving sometimes two, sometimes three or more of the conventional skills. This, in turn, reflects the fact that rarely if ever do we use four language skills separately; we do not talk to somebody just for the sake of speaking. Oral interaction involves, among other things, active participation of at least one speaker and one listener, which means that you do not recite a monologue to an unattentive listener but in fact

you have to perform *both* roles in turns; being an effective listener you can obtain certain information from your interlocutor, even if he/she may not be clear about it, through the use of good listening techniques (e.g. asking for clarification). Moreover, you may become a better speaker by being attentive to both lingual and paralingual behaviour of the listener (e.g. facial expressions and gestures) which tells you what your interlocutor understands or *does not* understand in your utterance. Consequently, you have to be able to perform at least two language skills in an integrated way; listening may be followed by speaking or writing (e.g. taking notes while listening to the radio), reading may be followed by speaking and so on. Thus it is undoubtedly vital to teach the language learners *how* to integrate the four language skills to be able to communicate effectively.

On the other hand, special attention must be paid to differentiating between various kinds of skills (subskills). We cannot confine ourselves to one subskill only (e.g. intensive reading) hoping that the rest will take care of itself. For example, totally different techniques are used to read a newspaper at breakfast and to read a novel for pleasure. You may spend a few moments browsing through many books in a bookshop or a library and then devote two weeks to reading just one of them. Being a good reader involves, in fact, not just one reading skill but consists of several different reading subskills which you choose according to your particular needs at a given moment. This leads to a conclusion that language learners must be *taught* all those varieties of reading (and listening, speaking and writing as well) to become fluent in a foreign language. This may be achieved in the context of skill integration, which provides plenty of opportunity for introducing various subskills and making the students aware of the differences between them.

To meet these needs, John and Liz Soars wrote the *Headway* coursebook which won the first prize in the English Language Competition under the auspices of the Duke of Edinburgh in 1988. The series started off with *Headway Intermediate* and *Upper Intermediate*, and once they had achieved commercial success in the market, they were followed by *Headway Advanced* and *Pre-Intermediate* and *Elementary*.

The *Headway* course abandons the idea of a "story-line" with its usually flat and not authentic character of Mr Smith designed to represent the average inhabitant of either the British Isles or the United States of America and, in most cases, utterly failing in doing so. Instead, a number of current issues have been introduced and dealt with in a very interesting way (e.g. global warming, holistic medicine etc.) which will probably be more interesting to young learners, especially at the University level.

Let us analyse the way in which *Headway Upper Intermediate* takes advantage of the skill integration approach and have a closer look at how the

four language skills are knit together in this coursebook. After the skills of speaking, listening, reading and writing have been discussed, a model of successful skill integration will be presented and analysed in a more detailed way.

2. SKILL PRESENTATION IN *HEADWAY UPPER INTERMEDIATE*

2.1. SPEAKING

Free speaking activities are usually integrated with Reading and Listening sections. They provide the students with the opportunity to practise the grammar structures introduced or revised in the unit in a highly contextualized environment, as well as continue the main topic of the unit introduced in the Speaking Point and the Reading section. They also serve a very important communicative function, and as such they may be combined with the relevant chapters of *Functions of English* (Jones, 1987) which aim at exposing the upper-intermediate students (i.e. first-year University students) to the situations stimulating their use of appropriate language in every day situations and making them sensitive to major aspects of oral communication in real life. The speaking activities involve role-playing, pair and group work (note very interesting activities in Units 3 and 9 of *Headway* — "A Maze" and "Solve the murder!" — which are both used in managerial training to test people's abilities to work in a team and select "the leaders from the led"), discussions, surveys, lecturettes (excellent free speaking activities, which are very often followed by discussions), simulations and other games.

2.2. LISTENING

A variety of sources (authentic interviews, dialogues recorded by professional actors etc.) and topics make listening a highly stimulating process, which motivates students to continue it in either a discussion or a written piece. All the materials are preceded by a pre-listening task which provides the students with the most important vocabulary items and introduces the topic thus reducing the unavoidable element of stress connected with listening in a classroom situation. All listening activities are followed by comprehension questions checking both the general and detailed understanding, and "What do you think?" questions arising from the problems or situations brushed on in the activity.

However, one major drawback of all those activities, which refers as well to other parts of the book, is that all of them are very much the same and involve the same kind of procedure (which is, in most cases, listening for

information activity consisting in answering the questions or filling in a chart). Intensive listening is touched on in only one unit (Unit 9) and comes as a shock to the students not expecting this sort of activity; they are not prepared to take this sort of risk having been conditioned to different type of listening before. Repetitiveness does, of course, have some advantages (e.g. students' habits) but even the most interesting kind of activity becomes boring if overused. Consequently, the teacher faces the choice of either boring his/her students to death or coming up with some more interesting ideas to explore the listening materials provided by the authors. It must be emphasised, however, that the value of the listening material of *Headway* is, in general, exceptional and may as well be preserved. Nevertheless, a little bit of variety in techniques is necessary.

Another clear advantage of the listening materials of *Headway* is the fact that they present different dialects and varieties of English, which is of great help in making the students aware of the differences between them. In this way they start to realize that it is not enough to be able to produce perfect RP sounds but the general knowledge of the existence of other varieties of English is essential if one wants to use English as a means of international communication. Being exposed to other "non-standard" varieties of English certainly helps the students understand the complexity of the nature of the "English speaking world out there". Consequently, he/she will probably (and hopefully) not panic on his/her first encounter with the "real world". Having listened to various accents and dialects of English the student will not assume that either:

(a) there is something wrong with the way he/she speaks which makes it impossible for him/her to figure out what that native speaker of English (whether Irish or Australian) is saying or

(b) perhaps the language he/she has been taught is not "real", which probably is not true but just reflects the fact that each speaker of English may use a different variety of English and the only way of coping with this problem is to make an effort to understand it.

This can be achieved by systematic exposure to English accents and dialects, which is one of the reasons why they are introduced in *Headway* in the very first unit; the students are asked to listen to six short monologues by native speakers of British, American, Australian, Scottish, Welsh and Irish English talking about their capital cities (the content of their speeches being of some help in establishing where they come from; students at this level are most probably not able to distinguish between particular accents, maybe except for British and American English). In another unit (Unit 9) the interview with an Indian woman is presented; yet another challenge for the students!

2.3. READING

It has been given special attention in the *Headway* series. Each unit contains at least one reading activity which is usually preceded by pre-reading tasks involving mostly prediction of the content of the text to be read or vocabulary presentation. This makes reading meaningful and relates it to the students' own experience thus reflecting the schema theory (Nunan 1990: 33) that reading is the interactive process between reader's expectations which involve the general knowledge of the subject and the text itself. The pre-reading task is usually combined with the Discussion Point which introduces the topic and "warms up" the students thus preserving the idea of skills integration: Speaking — Reading — Speaking, as it is usually followed by the discussion of the text.

A wide variety of sources is presented, including both classical and modern literature (Shakespeare, Somerset Maugham or Jack Higgins), daily newspapers, encyclopaedias, quizzes, popular and professional magazines etc. Moreover, various reading skills are introduced: skimming, scanning, intensive reading, reading for information, inferring and literary appreciation, which (contrary to *Headway's* listening offer) makes reading an interesting and sometimes challenging process. In this way the students are made aware that there is not just one general "reading skill" but in fact different types of reading skills are required in everyday life, which correspond to various *purposes* of reading. Reading a newspaper does not always involve intensive reading: a typical reader usually starts with scanning quickly for certain information and only then reads slowly for detailed comprehension.

2.4. WRITING

Writing is undoubtedly the most "unteachable" of the language skills and this is probably the reason why it tends to be neglected in most commercially available coursebooks. Firstly, it is not as natural as speaking or listening (almost every child, except those with physiological disabilities, is able to learn to understand and speak its native language; however, there are some children who never learn to write fluently [Nunan 1990: 36]). Secondly, it is very hard for the teacher to justify the need and necessity to spend the time on writing in the classroom, especially in the context of the importance given to speaking and, consequently, listening. It is much harder to conceal a mistake once it has been written down. Furthermore, good writing is not just the reflection of spoken language but is governed by very rigid rules concerning spelling, punctuation, style etc.

However, it is possible to justify the need for University students to learn to write well. After all, they will be asked to write theses in a couple of years' time! Unfortunately, the writing syllabus of *Headway* does not cater for that

need. Being separated from the skills' syllabus, it fails to fulfill the criterion of skill integration. Moreover, the writing activities (except for a few, such as letter writing, writing an appraisal of the book or an essay — although it may be argued that the last of those elements is not so important for a first year student) are not suitable for the academic type of writing and do not prepare the students for what will be required of them in the future.

Consequently, it is entirely up to the teacher either to ignore the writing syllabus of *Headway*, or to design his/her own syllabus or — which seems to be the ideal solution in the context of the skills integration task — to make an effort and come up with some ideas which would include writing in the skills syllabus. However, the *Headway* coursebook has failed to do it.

3. SKILL INTEGRATION IN *HEADWAY UPPER INTERMEDIATE*

Let us have a closer look at one of the units of *Headway* from the skills integration point of view. Unit One, being the introductory unit to the coursebook, seems to be the best choice. As all other units, it is devoted to one topic which is then exploited in the particular sub-sections. In this case learning foreign languages has been chosen to serve this purpose. Apart from being quite universal and familiar to all learners at this level, the topic sensitizes the students to the importance of good habits in language learning and exposes them to the existence of different varieties of English, thus motivating them to improve their performance. The topic is introduced in the Discussion Point (*Speaking*); first the students answer general questions concerning languages of the world (e.g. "Which language in the world is spoken by most people?") and then are encouraged to discuss their answers and present their reasoning. This usually leads to a very vivid discussion, since the topic is certainly attractive to every language learner. In a multi-lingual class the teacher may ask the students to compare their languages in the view of the criteria suggested in the quiz (e.g. Polish might be considered a relatively difficult language to learn by some speakers). This quite naturally leads to the reading section (*Reading*), which is preceded by the pre-reading task consisting in guessing (on the basis of students' knowledge and the knowledge of the world) whether the given statements are true or not (e.g. "One person out of seven in the world speaks perfect English"). When the students have finished the task, they may be asked to compare their answers (*Speaking*), and then proceed to the *Reading* section itself, which is an encyclopaedic text on "English as a world language". First the students are asked to skim-read it to get the answers to the questions from the pre-reading task (this may be set as a competition, which will make skim-reading more natural to the students who are probably unfamiliar with this sort of reading in the classroom). Then the students are asked to read the

text more carefully, and answer the Comprehension Text questions, or rather form the questions to the answers given on the text, thus checking the general understanding of the text (the grammar part of the unit is brushed on in this way). It is worth pointing out at this stage that two types of reading have been practised in the reading section: skim-reading and reading slowly for detailed comprehension.

The reading section is followed by "What do you think?" part (*Speaking*), in which the students are encouraged to express their views on the topic introduced in the text (e.g. "Which of the three groups of English speakers [i.e. native speakers, bi-lingual speakers or those who are *forced* to use the language for practical purposes] do you belong to? What is your reason for learning?").

This general introduction may be rounded off (possibly after a short break) by a *Listening* activity, in which the students are asked to recognize different accents of six speakers of English (see: 2.2. Listening). As this may prove quite difficult at this level, they may rely on the clues provided about the capital cities of each speaker. This activity may, of course, lead to another discussion (*Speaking*) on the varieties of English and possible difficulties arising from this fact for a learner of English.

Unit One offers one more *Listening* activity on languages, which is preceded by a *Speaking* section being the introduction to the *Listening* part. Using the so-called "pyramid discussion technique" the students are encouraged to work out what is most important in *their* learning process (the element of personalization; it is much easier for the learners to draw conclusions from the data which are familiar to them), e.g. learning grammar, pronunciation, *language skills* etc. This is followed by a pre-listening task on what they know and what they would like to learn about Esperanto (*Speaking* and *Writing*). In this way the students not only revise what they know about Professor Zamenhof's artificial language but also form their own questions thus making the *Listening* more meaningful (listening for specific information). After an introductory part to the radio program (an interview with a Scottish Professor; please notice the element of exposure to other varieties of English), in which they probably find most answers to their questions, the students are asked to concentrate on the advantages of Esperanto as a world language and the disadvantages of English as a world language (the apparent contradiction to the idea introduced in the reading text probably aims at stimulating the students to form their own conclusions on the topic). The session is again rounded off by the discussion on learning foreign languages. From the skill integration point of view it may be followed by a *Writing* activity (the ideas discussed so far have probably created some confusion and stimulated the students to give some thought to their views on language learning); e.g. the teacher may ask the students to summarize the comparison of English and

Esperanto (if he/she wishes to take advantage of the input of the *Listening* section) or on their learning habits (free writing may seem a bit hazardous at this stage, yet the risk may be worth taking, especially if the teacher wants to familiarize with his/her students at the beginning of the academic year). Please bear in mind, however, that the writing part is not suggested by the authors of *Headway* in this form (skill integration approach) but constitutes the separate part of the Unit and is devoted to proof-reading (which, of course, may be useful at the beginning of the course).

The examples presented above prove that *Headway* does, generally, take advantage of the skill integration approach. The skills are practised in the particular stages in a fully integrated way through the sequence *Speaking — Skim-Reading — Speaking — Reading for Detailed Comprehension — Speaking — Listening — Speaking* (the first example) and *Speaking — Listening — Speaking — Writing* (optional) as the second example. The apparent dominance of speaking is obviously hard to conceal but this seems unavoidable at the upper intermediate level and reflects the expectation of the learners trying to break through the difficult "intermediate plateau" (Soars 1991) and firmly believing that this may be achieved through intensive conversation practice. The skill integration approach does undoubtedly offer much more: not only intensive conversation but also steady development of other language skills, which are usually underestimated by young learners.

However, one serious drawback of the sample lesson presented above must be pointed out at this stage. Some students may find the never-ending discussion on one topic quite boring, which may of course be true. Yet you must remember that the skill-integration syllabus of *Headway* constitutes only a part of the coursebook; it is aided by the vocabulary syllabus and the grammatical syllabus (which are worth discussing in another article) and thus the prevailing topic of the unit may be as well interwoven with those sections to avoid repetitiveness and boredom

There are, of course, some other ways of exploiting the material presented above and no attempt is being made here to deny that. All teachers working with the *Headway* coursebook at the university level are heartily encouraged to devise their own materials on skill integration, or may take advantage of the model discussed in the previous sections. The model is not a very difficult one, and may as well be adopted to any other coursebook. What is important here, however, is the general principle underlying the whole concept of successful skill integration: in the context of communicative approach the learners should be encouraged to integrate the four language skills in a meaningful way, so that their learning process is complete and successful. Teachers, on the other hand, should do their best to provide their learners with suitable contexts stimulating fruitful skill integration.

Reviewed by Andrzej Krupowicz

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