

# Language learning and teaching

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**THEORY AND PRINCIPLES** *See also abstracts* 80–344, –352, –370

**80–328 Nord, James R.** Developing listening frequency before speaking: an alternative paradigm. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), **8**, 1 (1980), 1–22.

The emphasis on speaking in foreign-language teaching has diverted attention from the more elusive but fundamental area of listening: research suggests that more effective learning may result from teaching listening first and delaying oral response until listening frequency is well advanced. Since language can be acquired without performance, attention should be focused on acquisition rather than performance. In the audio-lingual method, early emphasis on speaking can limit the amount, type and rate of listening comprehension taught. Students may become task-overloaded by trying to express more than they are able to, and revert to the familiar habits of the mother tongue. The comprehension approach begins with aural linguistic data, the symbol system.

Different brain mechanisms are involved in listening from those involved in learning to speak; research indicates why the transfer from listening to speaking is feasible but not vice versa. Luria sees three levels of language development occurring at three separate levels of brain integration. Experiments on delayed auditory feedback suggest that children learning L1 do not directly imitate adults but develop the ability to imitate themselves. Research on listening frequency has been mainly concerned with developing sound–form perceptual–meaning associations in the brain.

**80–329 Richerich, René.** L'antidéfinition des besoins langagiers comme pratique pédagogique. [The anti-definition of language needs – an approach to teaching.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **149** (1979), 54–8.

In order to base one's teaching on the definition and analysis of the language needs of students one is first compelled to attempt to isolate and identify something which by its nature must be in a state of flux. Furthermore, the very concept of a theory of needs is ambiguous; and teachers, of necessity, are constrained by the framework within which they function. Anti-definition on the other hand, by opening up for the teacher a multiplicity of options, makes it possible to think more constructively in terms of language objectives to be attained and resources available, and thus to devise appropriate strategies.

**80-330 Stati, Sorin.** La sintassi nella linguistica contemporanea. [The syntax of contemporary linguistics.] *Studi Italiani di Linguistica Teorica ed Applicata* (Padua), 7, 1/2 (1978), 77-89.

The main features of some new approaches to theoretical syntax, particularly those which are structuralist and generative, are briefly sketched. The teaching of grammar at all educational levels should be radically changed according to the following principles: explanation, instead of mere description of facts; interdependence between syntax, morphology, lexicology and phonology, with special regard to the distinction between form and content; enrichment of the pupils' and students' competence as the main aim of language teaching; clear, precise, and efficient terminology and definitions. It seems advisable, for practical reasons, to start with the study of text (beginning with the analysis of oral and written dialogue) and to discuss last the word as a syntactic unit.

**PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING** See also abstracts 80-328, -338, -352/3

**80-331 Bialystok, Ellen.** Explicit and implicit judgements of L2 grammaticality. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), 29, 1 (1979), 81-103.

A study of the differential use of formal explicit knowledge and intuitive implicit knowledge in a second-language grammaticality judgement task. The hypothesis is that a set of conditions can be established which serve to identify the occasions in which each of these specialised types of knowledge will be used. These conditions are described as task-related factors (amount of detail required, response time allotted, specific structure tested) and learner-related factors (level of study in the L2, knowledge of other languages).

The subjects for the study were 317 English-speaking high-school students and adults learning French as a second language. French sentences were presented on tape and decisions about the grammaticality of each were recorded by subjects on coding sheets. The results indicated that explicit knowledge intervenes for incorrect sentences requiring detailed responses and that knowledge of another language is beneficial for certain conditions. These findings lead to a discussion of the relationship between implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge in second-language proficiency.

- 80-332 Bourgain, Dominique.** De quelques aspects psychologiques de l'apprentissage des langues chez les adultes. [Some psychological aspects of adult language learning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 149 (1979), 25-8.

For the adult learner of a foreign language, the process is complex and has more dimensions than the merely linguistic. Status and roles in society, past experience and future goals affect each individual differently. What happens in an adult language class is largely a function of the learners' lives outside the classroom. Being an adult is not a state but a continuous evolution within the individual's life history. Consequently, an adult class consists of autonomous learners being helped to learn. Teaching must aim at giving the learners autonomy in their activities.

Discussion of adult language teaching usually focuses on needs and strategies. 'Needs' is a complex concept, involving motivation, objectives and envisaged means, and statements by an individual can only be approximations and socially conditioned expressions of the needs themselves. Needs are the end-product of an individual and society, and their elucidation requires a long-term interaction between the learners, the teacher and the outside world. The object is to enable the learner to develop a consciousness of needs in relation to society, the target language and the practicalities, which alone can produce an internal autonomy and consequent strategy of learning.

- 80-333 Hermann, Gisela.** Die Rolle von Einstellungen im Fremdsprachenunterricht: Ein Dilemma der Fachdidaktik. [The role of attitudes in foreign-language teaching.] *Der Fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart), 13, 4 (1979), 6-15.

The student who embarks on the study of a foreign language brings with him certain attitudes which he has inherited from his previous cultural, social and linguistic experience. These attitudes will influence his approach to the new language whilst being gradually tempered and modified in the course of his contact with the language. While his attitude may determine his progress in mastering that language, success in a programme of language study may in turn lead to a more positive attitude towards the language, culture and people represented.

A detailed survey is made of a wide variety of social, psychological and linguistic studies on this subject, summarising current areas of research and examining in depth the theoretical basis on which such studies rest.

- 80-334 Neufeld, Gerald G.** A theoretical perspective on the nature of linguistic aptitude. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 16, 1 (1978), 15-25.

Research in the area of second or foreign-language learning has been seriously hampered by lack of knowledge of how children acquire their first language. It is probably correct to assert, as Carroll does, that people vary in their practical ability (inclination) to learn a second

language: the problem is to identify the factors which explain the variation in their classroom performance. There is inadequate scientific evidence to support the hypothesis that innate linguistic capability is one of these variables. What Carroll is really talking about is 'language learning readiness'. Differences in the behaviour of foreign-language students are primarily due to their psychological diversity and to the social context in which they acquire their new language.

**80-335 Tarone, Elaine.** Interlanguage as chameleon. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), 29, 1 (1979), 181-91.

The claim is made that Labov's 'Observer's paradox' and the five methodological axioms leading to this paradox apply to interlanguage. Thus, interlanguage can be seen as a continuum of styles, which is defined by the amount of attention paid to speech; the most systematic second-language learner speech is produced when the learner is paying the least attention to speech. Yet, when we do research, the presence of the researcher and the tasks presented to the learner, lead the subjects to pay attention to their speech. We cannot therefore claim that research can ever observe the most truly systematic form of a learner's interlanguage - unattended or 'unmonitored' speech. The methodological implications of this claim are explored, and recommendations for research are made.

**80-336 Walsh, Terrence M. and Diller, Karl C.** Neurolinguistic foundations to methods of teaching a second language. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), 16, 1 (1978), 1-14.

The aim is to unify linguistic theory with a growing body of neuroscientific knowledge, especially with reference to the structure and function of the cerebral cortex, in the hope of learning more about the process of teaching or learning language. In man, two regions have been associated with language function, Wernicke's Area and Broca's Area. Clinical data shows that damage to the first results in inability to comprehend the spoken word, and to the latter results in a disturbance of the capacity to express language in a meaningful way. [Discussion of the controversy over the precise cortical and cellular arrangements and physiological function involved in each area.] Wernicke's Area can be assumed to be of major importance in language acquisition, particularly the detection and analysis of language information in the environment. The auditory nature of language then becomes fundamental. [Discussion of how the critical systems involved in language acquisition might be laid down in cortical development.] Some possible differences in the cortical systems involved in first and second languages are suggested, and the way in which different teaching methods exercise widely differing neurolinguistic pathways is illustrated by three examples: Winitz and Reed's 'sensory' approach, 'mim-mem and pattern drill', and Sauzé's 'direct method multiple approach'.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

### RESEARCH METHODS *See also abstract 80-335*

**80-337 Freedman, Elaine S.** Valid research into foreign-language teaching – two recent projects. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), 7, 3 (1979), 187-99.

To be useful, foreign-language teaching research must be controlled and valid. With 'small-scale' experiments, valid comparative research into language teaching methods is possible. Since the disappointing Pennsylvania Project (Smith, 1970) two major 'small-scale' experiments, both aiming at improved internal validity, have been reported: the GUME Project (1972) and the York Study (1975). Although investigating different areas, both set out to compare teaching methods in a controlled and systematic fashion [detailed discussion of research methods and findings]. Although not perfect, both studies show that it is possible to improve on the internal validity of previous experiments.

In both projects, the greatest threat to internal validity came from lack of control of the teacher variable. The author has attempted to control this variable completely, by using the language laboratory to present grammatical material. However, the teacher's influence was still demonstrated repeatedly in the analysis of the results. Future research should employ some kind of index to monitor teacher attitudes and the existing school situation, to begin to control them like any other background variables.

**80-338 Schouten, M. E. H.** The missing data in second-language learning research. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), 4, 1 (1979), 3-14.

Too much research on second-language learning is based on theories which are supported not by facts but by strong but untested assumptions, which are treated as axioms. Contrastive analysis was based on just such an assumption, which proved untenable. Corder likewise assumed that the learner subconsciously tests hypotheses about the extent to which systems in his native and target language are the same or different. Nemser's 'approximative systems' approach is more guarded and therefore possibly more fruitful. Since we still do not have enough data for more than the most rudimentary behavioural models, attempts to construct neuropsychological theories such as Lamendella's are futile. [Some examples are given of studies which fail to meet the minimum standards of scientific rigour, and of others which are more encouraging.]

### CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS *See abstracts 80-318, -339, -371*

## ERROR ANALYSIS

**80–339 Meriö, Katri.** The psycholinguistic analysis and measurement of interference errors. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **16**, 1 (1978), 27–44.

An examination of 10,000 mistakes led the author to a new classification of language mixture or linguistic interference. The errors were made by Finns and Swedes learning each other's language as a foreign language. The theory is described as 'direct/indirect distance interference'. Modifying Weinrich's comprehensive definition, all the errors which a monolingual would not make constitute interference. It refers both to the influence of one language on another and to confusion within one language. The following error types are discussed: direct interference; indirect interference; actual linguistic interference; psychological interference, and 'contra-error'. The theory is developed by means of contrastive analysis of Finnish and Swedish.

**80–340 Noss, Richard B.** Mistakes, mismatches and gaps. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), **10**, 1 (1979), 1–15.

Techniques of error analysis are developed in order to diagnose and treat specific weak points in the competence of second-language learners. These can be divided into: (1) mistakes – errors of form or lexical selection made through carelessness, bad habits or a desire to communicate rapidly, the correct rule or item being known but not produced; (2) mismatches – errors of selection of a wrong or ambiguous syntactic pattern or lexical item through real ignorance of the correct item; (3) gaps – errors of omission, resulting in either an unfinished product or a hiatus in the flow of oral or written production. It is useful to make a distinction between harmless, confusing and misleading errors, and between lexical, syntactic and unclassifiable errors.

The first dimension of errors, 'effect on the consumer', is probably the least useful in terms of application to the classroom. The linguistic classification (lexical/syntactic/unclassifiable) is more promising: though syntactic errors are usually regarded as the most grave, the other two categories can be equally misleading. The third dimension, producer competence (mistakes/mismatches/gaps) has most relevance, because this is where diagnosis begins. The harmless mistakes are most likely to become fossilised. Preventive action must be taken, such as drills. Mismatches, if isolated, are usually amenable to immediate treatment, and gaps even more so [examples].

**80–341 Painchaud-LeBlanc, Gisèle.** Quelques caractéristiques du comportement linguistique des apprenants lents. [Some characteristics of the linguistic behaviour of slow learners.] *Working Papers on Bilingualism* (Toronto), **18** (1979), 1–23.

In order to attempt to identify the linguistic difficulties of slow learners, errors made by two groups of English-speaking adults learning French

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

as a second language were compared. The subjects of the two groups shared similar characteristics, excepting the amount of time required to cover the same linguistic material (group 1: 17 weeks; group 2: 30 weeks). To elicit oral utterances three techniques were used: (a) free expression; (b) translation; (c) the oral part of an achievement test. Results show that the difference between the two groups is highly significant for the total number of verb errors. Slow learners are also much more likely than the others to commit some kinds of errors. Learner strategies are hypothesised and a few tentative suggestions are made for teaching.

## TESTING

**80-342 Aitken, Kenneth G.** Techniques for assessing listening comprehension in second languages. *Audio-Visual Language Journal* (Birmingham), 17, 3 (1979), 175-81.

The aim is to familiarise second-language teachers with a variety of techniques that can be used to assess aural comprehension skills. A general overview of 'constructivist' models of speech perception and information processing is offered. Then a variety of aural comprehension evaluation techniques (for intermediate and advanced students) which reflect these models is reviewed: multiple-choice items; fill-in items; dictation tests (including some modified versions).

**80-343 Raasch, Albert.** 'S'auto-évaluer' un néologisme? L'auto-évaluation dans un cours de français langue étrangère. [Self-evaluation in a course of French as a foreign language.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), 149 (1979), 63-7.

From the starting point that it is the learner who knows his own skills and weaknesses best, it is argued that this approach can yield valuable information on the development of communicative competence in the pupil, both to the teacher and the taught, despite difficulties in the construction and interpretation of the tests. The tests are examined and explored in some detail, while acknowledging the reservations which many teachers hold as to the efficacy of the particular method. Guidelines are given for the construction of self-evaluation tests, as well as indications of lines of thought and methods of work developing from these.

**CURRICULUM PLANNING** See abstracts 80-362, -367

**SYLLABUS DESIGN** See abstract 80-324

**MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT** See also abstracts 80–360,  
–375

**80–344 Coste, Daniel.** Le linguistique et le reste dans la conception des matériaux pédagogiques pour l'enseignement scolaire des langues secondes. [Linguistics and other factors in the conception of teaching materials for second languages in schools.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **29** (1979), 100–11.

The present is a time when the practical and instrumental objectives of education are under debate, the accent is on learner-centred teaching and the principles of the construction of teaching materials are in process of reconsideration. The objectives of second-language learning have always been said to be more than linguistic, including political, psychological and cultural ends, but the linguistic remains dominant. There is a danger that functional-notional syllabuses will perpetuate this dominance, albeit at a subtler level, since 'How to refuse in French' is as linguistically oriented as 'The uses of the present perfect'.

Second-language teaching must aim at developing the learners' autonomous ability to perceive the social and cultural conventions of the target environment as a whole, and to generate appropriate utterances to achieve the individual's own ends – which cannot be foreseen at the age of 14 or so. The conception of teaching materials must be geared to this end, and must take into account not only what is involved in operating in a foreign culture, but also what schools are for and why children should attend them.

**80–345 Debyser, Francis.** La découverte du parlé grâce au document sonore. [The discovery of the spoken word thanks to oral material.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **145** (1979), 79–84.

A chronological approach to the development of oral teaching material from the 1960s onwards. The early emphasis on the audio-lingual (Assimil/Linguaphone) approach is attributed to the emphasis on standard language and a mistrust of the spoken word, together with a rigid and structured approach to teaching. An examination is made of the development towards authentic material and the rejection of the structural and structuro-global methods, followed by a discussion of difficulties involved in the new approach.

Psychological and pedagogical difficulties are inherent in the utilisation of authentic speech. The current situation in France, with a paucity of equipment and the prohibitive price of tapes, will only serve to exacerbate the situation.

**80–346 Reboullet, André.** De l'écrit authentique à l'oral authentique. [From authentic written to authentic oral work.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **145** (1979), 15–19.

Attitudes to, and the development of, authentic written material for the



## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

teaching of French as a foreign language from 1968 onwards are discussed, with the aim of establishing the changing criteria for working definitions of 'authentic'. The parallel development of pre-recorded material is also discussed, which has largely consisted of specially designed prestige tapes, from well-established sources, which could at best be regarded as a narrow and limited field, but which is currently expanding in many directions. [List of sources for pre-recorded material.]

### TEACHER TRAINING *See also abstract 80-365*

**80-347 Herzlich, Rivka.** Evaluation d'un aspect du micro-enseignement dans la formation des professeurs de langues étrangères. [Evaluation of an aspect of micro-teaching in foreign-language teacher training.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), 30 (1979), 5-22.

Current approaches to foreign-language teaching require a greater interaction between teacher and learner. It would appear more likely that trainee teachers will learn to 'master the teaching model' through a micro-teaching programme than by observing lessons and trying out full or part lessons with complete classes (learning to 'model the master-teacher').

Bar-Ilon University carried out an experiment in 1976-7 to determine whether this could be shown to be so, and, if so, whether micro-teaching with real learners, with all its administrative inconvenience, gave any advantage over simulated micro-teaching within the trainee peer-group. Trainees formed three groups: A, with a full programme of micro-teaching with small classes of learners; B, with a peer-group micro-teaching programme; C, with observation and practice teaching on conventional lines. Results were evaluated according to: skill in posing and chaining questions, number of learner responses, number of extended learner responses, and number of minutes of class discussion. [Description of experiment, results, tables and discussion.] The experiment indicated that micro-teaching with small groups of real learners gave much improved results in developing teacher competence.

**80-348 Massey, Michael A.** The functional approach: new requirements for teacher training. *Médium* (Quebec), 4, 1 (1979), 17-25.

A recent survey of teacher-training institutions in Canada revealed that most programmes devoted little or no time to teaching practice. What teaching practice there was, was of the 'method focus' type, i.e. the teacher is trained to dispense a method. Analysis of these methods showed that they all accept the premise that the learner should acquire a stock of grammatical structures: most favour pattern-drills or

analytical-type exercises. Thus teachers are prepared at the level of technique but are unable to vary their approach.

In contrast, a functional approach which is student-centred is described, in the form of a preliminary in-service course for language teachers, conducted under the Canadian Federal Government language-training programme. [Details of course construction.] Time was too short (96 hours) to enable trainees or instructors to master the requisite techniques, and some trainees complained about the lack of clear guidelines. However, the exercise showed that techniques can be developed for training teachers in the conduct of a learner-centred functional-notional syllabus, though satisfactory development of such techniques may be a long-term goal. The teaching strategy is in four phases: planning, organising, managing and evaluating.

**80-349 Morris, P. D. and Smalley, A.** Modern languages and teacher supply in 1979. *Modern Languages* (London), **60**, 4 (1979), 191-5.

Results are presented of a survey conducted on behalf of the Modern Language Association, which believes that more publicity should be given to the difficulty experienced by schools in recruiting language staff. Two separate questionnaires were sent, one to local authority advisers and the other to teacher-training institutions. Replies from the LEAs showed that finding staff for modern-language departments was a major problem in almost all parts of the country. Measures taken include cutting out languages altogether, appointing less well-qualified staff or employing foreign nationals as instructors. The position is even more difficult for languages other than French. Schools without a sixth form have particular difficulty in recruiting.

Replies from the universities showed that of 624 students who would acquire Qualified Teacher Status in June 1979, 493 would teach French, 212 German, 63 Spanish, 20 Russian and 12 Italian (about 150 were qualifying in two languages). Replies from the remaining sector of teacher education showed that out of 501 students expected to qualify, 453 would teach French, 38 German, 11 Spanish, 5 Russian, and none Italian. Other trends which emerged were that students increasingly prefer to obtain a university degree followed by a postgraduate certificate; and that women entering the profession outnumbered men considerably (out of 967 new entrants, 248 were men and 719 women). Changes are proposed to avoid any further decline.

**TEACHING METHODS** *See also abstracts* 80–336/7, –355, –363, –376

**80–350 Arendt, Manfred.** Situational teaching – Versuch einer Abgrenzung. [An attempt to define situational teaching.] *Englisch* (Berlin), 14, 3 (1979), 85–92.

The article distinguishes between situational and non-situational teaching by analysing which aspects of communication processes outside the school are important in the teaching of a foreign language, and by considering how far these aspects are affected by the school situation itself. These aspects are discussed under four headings – personal factors, situational context, content and language. A substantial number of the determining characteristics of real communication processes cannot be reproduced in the school situation. In the classroom, the foreign language can become an end in itself, rather than a means to an end, that is, to enable to pupil to communicate. Its mechanical use without any exchange of information and often with no relationship between individual utterances is recognised as unnatural by pupils and leads to a lack of involvement which actively hinders learning. Situational teaching does not prescribe a method but is a principle which asserts that it is possible for linguistic behaviour in the classroom to approach that encountered in normal situations outside the school.

**80–351 Eppert, Franz and Kuepper, Karl J.** A speech-act-theory approach to second-language teaching. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), 36, 1 (1979), 49–58.

The didactic concept of the approach is based on two preliminary methodical decisions: (1) the emphasis on the interplay of illocution and perlocution within the process of presenting and generating linguistic utterances; (2) the use of the source language of the learners as both the metalinguistic medium and the contrastive background for the target language. The four stages of learning are: (i) semantisation through a series of short dialogues with the target-language version confronted by an equivalent source-language utterance; (ii) acquisition of the morphosyntactic and lexical material, primarily through individual study; (iii) reinforcement through a series of closed exercises within the classroom and/or the language laboratory; (iv) performance on the basis of paraphrasing illocutionary stimuli in the source language.

**BILINGUAL TEACHING** *See also abstracts 80–357, –374*

- 80–352 Cummins, Jim.** Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism* (Toronto), **19** (1979), 197–205.

Evidence supporting the following three propositions is reviewed: (1) cognitive/academic language proficiency can be empirically distinguished from interpersonal communicative skills such as accent and oral fluency in both L1 and L2; (2) cognitive/academic language proficiencies in both L1 and L2 are manifestations of the same underlying dimension; (3) because of (2), older L2 learners, whose L1 proficiency is better developed, will acquire L2 cognitive/academic proficiency more rapidly than younger learners. The relevance of this analysis for the concepts of 'semilingualism', 'code-switching' and 'bilingual education' is outlined.

- 80–353 Lightbown, Patsy M.** Question form and meaning in the speech of young children learning French. *Working Papers on Bilingualism* (Toronto), **18** (1979), 103–30.

This paper is based on a longitudinal study of the development of questions in the spontaneous speech of two anglophone boys learning French by attending French-language schools. The development of form–meaning relations in information questions in the children's French L2 speech was examined and comparisons were made with the same form–meaning development in the speech of children learning their first language. In addition, the use of word order inversion in questions in the learners' speech was compared to the use of inversion by the adult native speaker who interacted with them in the tape-recorded play sessions on which the study is based. The results show clearly the necessity for examining L2 learners' speech in context and for comparing it with that of native speakers.

**CLASS METHODS** *See abstracts 80–340, –342***PRONUNCIATION** *See also abstract 80–377*

- 80–354 de Bot, C. L. J.** The role of feedback and feedforward in the teaching of pronunciation – an overview. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), **8**, 1 (1980), 35–45.

A review is made of apparatus which provides visual and auditory feedback and feedforward in the teaching and learning of pronunciation, including SUVAG-Lingua, glottographs and the laryngograph.

As far as effectiveness is concerned, it is difficult to assess the true

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

value of most of the equipment treated here, since most research into its effectiveness is marred by methodological errors. Some research workers have serious doubts about the usefulness of this sort of method and about the possibility of transferring the acquired skills from the learning situation to the 'real-world' situation.

The basic assumption underlying most investigations is that feedback must have a positive effect on the acquisition of pronunciation or on attempts to improve it. Various investigations, however, seem to point to the fact that certain types of feedback and feedforward are very task-specific and that the time lag between reaction and feedback is of crucial importance to the effectiveness of feedback. More research with considerable numbers of subjects and appropriate statistical processing of the results is indispensable.

**VOCABULARY TEACHING** *See abstracts 80-324, -372, -378*

**LANGUAGES FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES** *See abstracts 80-360, -366, -369, -379*

**READING** *See also abstract 80-366*

**80-355 Cates, G. Truett and Swaffar, Janet K.** Reading a second language: comprehension and higher-order learning skills. *Recherches et Échanges* (Paris), 4, 2 (1979), 55-83.

Reading comprehension is a complex skill involving higher-order cognitive processes. Students should be trained in strategies to achieve it, and teachers should consider making fundamental changes in their selection and treatment of reading material. In the early stages, students should be taught to rely on prediction and inference to augment their limited knowledge of the language. Understanding texts includes not only lexical identification but identifying sentence types, crucial relations between sentences, recognising the type and genre of the text, making references about implications of the text, etc. 'High-order' questions which encourage students to use inferential reasoning help them to read for meaning, and should be introduced from the beginning. Texts should be treated in terms of the ideas they represent, not primarily in terms of lexical items and structures. [Research and experiments are given as examples.]. Grammar explanations should be aids to comprehension. The standard order of grammatical presentation delays treating global functions, which are those most needed by the learner in the early stages of understanding texts. Referential features of texts which are probably most useful to beginning students are deixis (reference of

person, time and place), and anaphora (reference to elements elsewhere in the text).

As far as teaching is concerned, research evidence suggests that the multiple use of texts is most useful. Courses should include different kinds of reading for different kinds of text, such as skimming, scanning, reading for thorough comprehension and critical reading. Ways in which teachers can assess the difficulty of texts and their readability are discussed, principally the idea of a learning sequence, and the use of the text.

**80-356 Clarke, Mark A.** Reading in Spanish and English: evidence from adult ESL students. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), 29, 1 (1979), 121-50.

The research discussed here attempted to determine if (a) psycholinguistics could explain the reading behaviours of adult Spanish speakers reading in Spanish and in English, and (b) if these readers transferred their skills to English. The results of two studies are presented. In the first study, twenty-one adult Spanish-speaking ESL students took cloze tests in Spanish and in English. In the second study, the Spanish and English reading performances of a good L1 reader and a poor L1 reader were analysed according to established oral miscue procedures. The results confirm the psycholinguistic perspective of reading for Spanish speakers reading in Spanish. It appears, however, that language competence exerts a powerful effect on the reader, thereby reducing the good reader's advantage over the poor reader when their performances in English are compared. A language competence ceiling effectively prohibits the complete transfer of L1 reading skills to the second language. Limited command of the language produces a 'short circuit' effect on good readers, forcing them to revert to 'poor reader strategies'. Theoretical, pedagogical and methodological implications are discussed.

**80-357 Hauptman, Philip C.** A comparison of first and second language reading strategies among English-speaking university students. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), 4, 2 (1979), 173-99.

A pilot study was conducted with 47 English-speaking students enrolled in classes in French as a second language at the University of Ottawa, a bilingual, English-French institution. The purpose of the study was two-fold: (1) to investigate the use of L2 cues at various proficiency levels and (2) to compare L1 and L2 reading strategies. In the first case, the aim was to see if students use syntactic and semantic cues equally at different proficiency levels in L2 and to try to determine how, why, and under what conditions they use these cues. In the second case, it was to see if there were any differences or similarities in the use of syntactic and semantic cues between L1 and L2 reading tasks. Finally,

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

an investigation was made to determine if the similarities or differences were a function of the L2 proficiency. [Method – use of cloze procedure; results.] General conclusions were that cloze is a valid instrument for measuring and studying reading strategies, and that equivalent bilingual forms of a text can be arrived at through translation of texts. Conclusions relating to second-language learning were that as proficiency in L2 improves, students make more semantic, rather than syntactic, errors, possibly because they are prepared to take more chances. Lower proficiency students are more reluctant to take chances than higher proficiency students, and are less able to use global textual information. [Some parallels in L1 and L2 learning strategies are noted.]

**80–358 Kavale, Kenneth and Schreiner, Robert.** The reading processes of above average and average readers: a comparison of the use of reasoning strategies in responding to standardised comprehension measures. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), 15, 1 (1979), 102–28.

This study identified reasoning strategies used by above-average and average readers in responding to standardised measures of reading comprehension. Methodologically, protocol analysis techniques adapted from problem-solving research were used. Results indicated that readers used identifiable sequences representing reasoning strategies. The application of reasoning strategies, however, appeared to be influenced by the specific type of question to be answered. Reasoning strategies were considered analogous to algorithms found in problem-solving research. In comparing strategy use between groups, significant differences were found between average and above-average readers in the magnitude and variety of reasoning strategies used. Above-average readers showed more applications and successes with the most often used strategies and the preferred strategies for question types. In contrast, average readers showed greater variability in strategy use and more applications of less efficient reasoning strategies. The obtained process differences between reading groups were considered analogous to variations in the use of heuristic techniques found in problem-solving research which aid the search for the most appropriate algorithm (reasoning strategy). Pedagogical implications are suggested concerning the relationship of reasoning strategies to teaching reading comprehension.

**80–359 Widdowson, H. G.** The realisation of rules in written discourse. *Recherches et Échanges* (Paris), 4, 2 (1979), 1–19.

Instead of characterising reading as an exercise in linguistic analysis, whereby information is extracted from a written text, a written text should be seen as a set of directions for conducting an interaction between writer and reader. Meanings are therefore not contained in a text but are derived from the discourse that is created from it, and are

thus always approximations. An approach to reading is proposed which focuses on the procedures which the language user employs in making sense of written communication. The sentence is irrelevant to the study of text and its relation to discourse, and therefore to the process of reading.

In the reality of language use, interpretation procedures are used which make sense of linguistic elements and their relationship, e.g. allowing lexis to take precedence over syntax. Psycholinguistics tells us how syntactic structure is processed in the act of interpretation, but this is irrelevant to how linguistic rules are realised in communication. Understanding discourse involves an engagement with the language user's cognitive and experiential reality. The procedures which the user has at his disposal for realising linguistic rules in order to communicate include those which are based on assumptions of normality (Halliday's 'good reason' principle), and those which relate information to what the interlocutors already know. Gricean maxims constitute general directions for conducting an interaction, and are applied here to written discourse.

It is useful to distinguish between two main types of act that the writer performs: 'focal' acts which represent his purpose in writing, and 'enabling' acts which facilitate the conveyance of his facts, ideas, etc. A text is thus a collection of linguistic clues which the reader must interpret in order to reconstitute the interaction. 'Comprehension' questions should not be directed at analysing the text product but at developing the discourse process.

**COMMUNICATION** *See abstracts 80-345, -350, -359*

**COMPREHENSION** *See abstracts 80-328, -342, -375*

**AURAL AIDS** *See abstracts 80-345/6, -375*

**AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS** *See also abstracts 80-347, -354*

**80-360 Kennedy, Chris.** Video in ESP. *RELC Journal* (Singapore), 10, 1 (1979), 58-69.

The paper reviews the developments taking place in the use of video in English for Specific Purposes as part of a package of teaching materials. Trained teachers are essential for effective handling of video, which implies teacher-training courses in the mechanics and methodology of video. Materials must be designed so that students can participate



## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

actively in and respond to video recordings. 'On-line' participation is difficult to achieve, especially in the teaching of oral skills, since video is limited to presenting aspects of communication. Varied and motivating exercises designed to develop 'off-line' participation therefore need to be developed. More basic research is needed.

The advantages of video are its flexibility for recording interaction for replay and feedback; it can present 'authentic' data, show language in use in a variety of situations and demonstrate the interplay of verbal and non-verbal aspects of discourse; it can demonstrate processes or equipment which are not accessible to the learner in the classroom or in the laboratory. It has been found to be motivating for the learner, it increases retention of material and, by providing visual support, aids comprehension of spoken discourse.

In an ESP situation, video is particularly useful in developing study skills such as note-taking, listening to lectures and participating in seminars; it has great potential as an aid in the teaching of oral skills to overseas students.

## INDIVIDUALISED INSTRUCTION

**80–361** **Stevens, Peter.** The paradox of individualised instruction: it takes better teachers to focus on the learner. *Recherches et Échanges* (Paris), 5, 1 (1980), 1–15.

Individualised instruction, far from being a cheap and easy answer to the problems of institutionalised language teaching, requires a more comprehensive background of teaching and experience on the teacher's part. The dominance of audio-lingual teaching meant subservience to the curriculum and a deliberate diminution of the teacher's contribution. The essentials of good 'teach-learning' are discussed under three headings: 'learner variables', 'teacher variables' and 'method variables'. Analysis of these groups of variables illustrates the complexity of their interconnection. Turning to the specific cases of the Council of Europe's Modern Languages Project, putting into practice notional, functional and communicative ideas, there still remains a good deal of ambiguity in the term 'needs', depending on what particular perspective is involved: that of the specialists in learning, the specialists in teaching, or the would-be communicators themselves. Before we can focus better on the learners, the calibre of the teachers must be improved.

## SELF-INSTRUCTION

- 80-362 Ager, D. E. and others.** Assisted self-tutoring in foreign languages at Aston. *Recherches et Échanges* (Paris), 5, 1 (1980), 16-29.

An Assisted Self-Tutoring Scheme was set up for undergraduates not specialising in languages, postgraduates and others, following a survey and a pilot programme [details]. It provides for about 100 potential students and covers theoretically any language (in practice, about 25). The system is based on a resources centre, an organising tutor, and a native informant. The student develops his learning in seven stages, in some of which he is in direct contact with the tutor, in others working on his own, or being assessed by an examiner or external standard. The main function of the tutor is to train students to learn. The native informant must take a passive role and not act the teacher. The scheme has proved flexible, economic and successful within the context for which it was designed.

- 80-363 Dickinson, Leslie.** Self-instruction in commonly taught languages. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), 7, 3 (1979), 181-6.

Self-instruction, though most obviously applicable to exotic languages, is also relevant to commonly taught languages. Three situations indicating self-instruction are discussed: learners who cannot get to classes; classes in which the learners have very varied needs; and self-instruction as preparation for autonomy. The paper distinguishes among the various self-instructional methods according to the emphasis placed on teaching versus learning. [Brief discussion of the implications of self-directed learning for the learner, the teacher and the relationship between them.]

## LANGUAGE LABORATORIES

- 80-364 Bullivant, David B.** Games people play in the language laboratory – or ‘the Punch and Judy show’. *System* (Linköping), 7 (1979), 117-24.

The value of the language laboratory as a medium for guided self-instruction is stressed, and the role of both pupil and instructor in such a mode is examined. Methods of using two-, three- and four-phase drills are given, building up gradually from cue repetition to open-ended situations. The presentation of prose texts in the laboratory is also examined.

**ADULTS** See abstracts 80-332, -341, -356, -374

**IMMIGRANTS** See abstract 80–368

**ENGLISH** See also abstracts 80–340, –360

- 80–365 Acheson, Palmer and Newsham, G. S.** The teaching of ESL in Canada: a preliminary report. *TESL Talk* (Toronto), 10, 1/2 (1979), 4–15.

This paper is based on a survey of publicly supported programmes for the teaching of English as a second language and for the training of teachers for this speciality in Canada in 1977–8. This survey (in part an updating of a previous survey done ten years ago) provided information from programmes administered by the federal government, by provincial governments or by local school boards throughout the whole of Canada. The complete results have not as yet been compiled: the remarks in this paper are based on a return of about 60 per cent of the questionnaires, containing information on a population of 500,000 children and 90,000 adults. Final results will be published in book form.

- 80–366 Cortese, Giuseppina.** English for Academic Purposes: a reading course for students of political sciences. *Rassegna Italiana di Linguistica Applicata* (Rome), 11, 1/2 (1979), 125–49.

A course designed to improve the scientific reading proficiency of Italian students of political sciences is discussed under three headings: (1) educational, covering the specific educational context, interdisciplinary teaching and the role of the teacher in languages for special purposes; (2) methodological, covering the role of reading in FLT, and the implications of the structural/situational method and of discourse analysis for the so-called 'receptive' skills; (3) psycholinguistic, in terms of a model of reading which entails active interaction with the text rather than mere decoding; different sub-skills and reading strategies are discussed.

- 80–367 Doyé, Peter.** Primary English: a research project on the teaching of English in German primary schools. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), 34, 1 (1980), 29–34.

The NFER Primary French Project in 1974 could not find any long-term effectiveness in the teaching of French from primary level. An experiment conducted in Germany from 1970 to 1975 had a different outcome. English is usually taught from the fifth form onwards (i.e. from age 10–11), but in the experiment in 12 primary schools an earlier start was made, in the third form of the primary school, and the organisation was such that all the 8-year-olds in one area participated. When they entered secondary school, they thus found themselves with other early beginners. Achievement was tested every year and comparison was made with a control group.

The main results were as follows: (1) at the end of the fifth, sixth, and seventh forms the pupils who had started to learn English in the primary school achieved higher levels of competence in listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension and writing than those who had started in the secondary school. The difference was greatest in the fifth form and decreased slightly in the following two years, but was still significant in all four skills at the end of the seventh form. (2) The early start in English did not affect the pupils' achievement in other subjects. (3) At the end of the experiment 74 per cent of the pupils who had begun learning English in the primary school and 81 per cent of their parents declared themselves in favour of the start in the third form. (4) Of the teachers who had taken part in the experiment 97 per cent were in favour of the early start; but in the control group 67 per cent of the teachers favoured the start in the third form. On the basis of these findings the research team recommended a general introduction of primary English in the FGR.

**80-368 Jones, Irene.** Some cultural and linguistic considerations affecting the learning of English by Chinese children in Britain. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), 34, 1 (1980), 55-61.

The Chinese 'extended family' promotes a sense of well-being and confidence in Chinese children, which is conducive to studying diligently. They are also taught respect for teachers. But their close-knit background can also isolate them in a British classroom, and diffidence is encouraged by traditions of courtesy. Many Chinese children experience culture-clash. More could be done in the British educational system to give them greater awareness of themselves as Chinese and also to educate non-Chinese pupils in Chinese culture. [Some aspects of the learning of English with which Chinese children often have difficulty are described.]

**80-369 Kerr, Veronica and McDonough, Jo.** Phasing an ESP programme into an EFL course. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), 34, 1 (1980), 41-7.

The article suggests one way of beginning an EFL study skills programme, particularly for students whose proficiency in English is not advanced. The group discussed here were following an intensive nine-month English course before taking up postgraduate study. The method could also be used in pre- and in-session 'service' courses. Some practical problems arise with groups of different levels of proficiency, mixed subject-groups and multilingual groups. The model proposed is intended to be seen as transitional, i.e. forming a bridge between an initial, structure-based component and later, more overtly ESP components. A topic is taken as the defining organisational principle, with study skills becoming dependent. This allows students to activate their language less consciously while their attention is drawn

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

to the topic. The main dependent skill is the short lecturette given by each student, but the range of skills covered includes pattern practice and increasing vocabulary, and extends to effective interaction. Motivation is very high. [The model is described in practice.]

**80-370 Mathews-Břesky, R. J. H.** What price correctness? *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **33**, 4 (1979), 254-62.

Communication is the important issue, and mangled grammar may still make for more effective speech acts than errors of vocabulary, *The dog he lies under the chair* being clearer than *The dog is lying under the stool*. Standards of correctness change with time. In an ESL situation where all interlocutors speak the same simplified version of a language, some superfluous features can be omitted, such as question-tags, third-person -s, past-time markers like -ed where context makes the past setting clear. In EFL situations, however, correctness is essential for communication; the learner has to make native speech his model.

**80-371 Mentcher, E.** Teaching English to Russian students. *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **34**, 1 (1980), 47-52.

Some differences between English and Russian at the levels of phonology and grammar are noted, to help teachers realise where interference from the student's mother tongue is most likely to occur.

**80-372 Powell, J. B.** The problem of stylistic values in English language teaching. *Moderna Språk* (Saltsjö-Duvnäs, Sweden), **73**, 3 (1979), 223-31.

Learners of English are often mistaken about the stylistic value of a word or expression, despite a correct understanding of the lexical meaning. This can lead to misunderstanding or bizarre effects. The treatment of stylistic values in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English* (OALDCE) is helpful but is not systemic enough. Indeed, some of its labelling is confusing, especially the categories 'slang', 'formal', 'vulgar'. More guidance could also be given over dialect words. A useful exercise for learners to help them to be aware of the problem would be a revised version of the list of stylistic values in OALDCE, with clear definitions, explanatory notes and examples.

**FRENCH** See also abstracts 80-324, -331, -341, -343, -345/6, -357

**80-373 Canu, Gaston.** Le français, langue seconde, en Afrique noire. [French as a second language in Black Africa.] *Français Moderne* (Paris), **47**, 3 (1979), 197-207.

Former French colonies in Africa have adopted French as their official language (the language of government, law, education, etc.) but at the

present time French is still far from being a true second language for the majority of the population. As a consequence of the need to communicate between different linguistic groups, however, an indigenous variety of 'popular French' has developed which on occasions deviates so far from standard French as to render it incomprehensible to a non-African French speaker.

In francophone Africa, French is used as the medium of instruction in schools and is taught by methods differing little from those in use in Metropolitan France even though the majority of pupils are unacquainted with the language before starting school. Concern at the level of spoken French among the masses has prompted suggestions, particularly in the Ivory Coast, for using African languages as the medium of instruction and for teaching French like a foreign language. In former British territories, where a parallel policy was followed, the English spoken by ordinary people also gives rise to concern. The best solution is to teach French as a true second language.

**80-374 Rebuffot, Jacques.** La situation de l'apprentissage du français en pays bilingues. [Teaching and learning French in a bilingual country (Canada).] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **149** (1979), 19-24.

A bilingual country may be defined as one where institutional bilingualism accords official status to more than one language – in Canada, English and French. One Canadian in four has French as his mother tongue and it is federal policy to increase the use of French in government. Consequently, a large segment of the public for French consists of civil servants and government employees who must acquire French to gain promotion.

Most Canadian adults have at least some passive knowledge of French and a wide variety of courses are available – intensive, semi-intensive, immersion, week-end, self-study – at schools, universities and in the workplace. The type of course selected correlates closely with the learner's level of education, which is usually above average. Standard Canadian French is taught.

**80-375 Wendt, Michael and Roth, Béatrice.** L'élaboration de documents sonores par le professeur de français langue étrangère. [The preparation of oral materials by teachers of French as a foreign language.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **145** (1979), 23-7.

Listening competence is a constituent of general communicative competence. It is desirable for a teacher to expand the listening competence of his students by the inclusion of his own taped material within the standard classroom work, especially given the difficulties which are experienced by some students at the early stages with pre-recorded authentic material.

## LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING

A discussion follows on the most suitable types of material to present as well as methods of presentation, and includes a special section on the advantages and difficulties of using taped interviews. [A discussion of the principles involved in the selection and arrangement of pre-recorded material.]

### GERMAN

**80–376 Binder, Ursula.** Die Satzbaupläne und ihre Anwendung im Deutschunterricht. [Sentence patterns and their use in the teaching of German.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), 16, 5 (1979), 292–300.

Using the published results of research into sentence patterns, a new system of patterns is developed which is intended to assist the teacher of German as a foreign language. It is arranged in stages and consists of three components: predicate models, valency models, and models of complex sentences. The theoretical basis is provided by Tesnière's dependency grammar and Chomsky's generative grammar. Valency theory is linked here with the principle of generating an infinite number of sentences from a limited stock of words and with acceptability criteria for sentences. Both the theoretical and practical applications of sentence pattern models are demonstrated.

**80–377 Kolosov, K. M.** Обучение фонетике: наука или искусство? [The teaching of phonetics: science or art?] *Иностранные языки в школе* (Moscow), 4 (1979), 13–20.

In teaching phonetic aspects of language, heuristic methods involving trial and error and much uncertainty on the part of the learner are rejected in favour of methods based upon detailed analysis of the principles and procedures involved and a full awareness of these on the part of the learner. This case is supported by extensive evidence drawn from general theories of learning. The roles of verbal instructions, diagrams, drawings and photographs, signs, symbols and technological aids are examined. Five phases of instruction are identified: orientation, planning, articulation, establishment and testing. Central to the proposed method is the development of phonetic models deriving from fully elaborated algorithms.

The thesis is illustrated by a complete teaching sequence for the German sound [o:]. Such an approach cannot cover all the shades of natural sound, but the full contribution of the learner's intuition will only be realised if such thorough attention is devoted at least to the normative pronunciation of the sounds of a language.

**RUSSIAN** See also abstract 80–325

**80–378 Leed, Richard L. and Nakhimovsky, Alexander D.** Lexical functions and language learning. *Slavic and East European Journal* (Madison, Wis), 23, 1 (1979), 104–13.

The notion of lexical functions is taken from the work of Mel'čuk and other Soviet authors, and concerns regular meaning relations between words, such as synonym and antonym, inceptive or conversive. The notion can help teachers to enlarge students' vocabulary, teach them word formation and develop their feel for idiomatic Russian. Standard dictionaries and grammars fail to answer many of the learner's questions about vocabulary style and usage. Until dictionaries are created which specify the values of lexical functions, some exercises are suggested for practical classroom work.

**80–379 Motina, N. I. and others.** Функциональный синтаксис как лингвистическая основа практической грамматики русского языка для студентов-иностранцев. [Functional syntax as a linguistic basis for a practical grammar of the Russian language for foreign students.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1979), 57–61.

A set of teaching materials for students in technical/scientific subjects seeking sufficient knowledge of the language to gain information in their subject specialism is described. In these a functional approach to the classification of linguistic elements is adopted.

The particular instance of noun phrases is discussed and an algorithm for the classification of nouns is presented. The range of possible syntactical forms is found to vary according to the type of noun, abstract or concrete, with sub-categories such as action, condition and quality in the case of the former, and animate or inanimate in the case of the latter. For example, some groups of prepositions may occur, others may not, in conjunction with nouns in these categories; some phrases may act as predicators, others are predicated.

In developing skills in comprehension, the student is required to relate complex statements such as *кристалл обладает прозрачностью* and *кристалл утрачивает прозрачность* to the basic model statement about the object and its characteristic expressed by *кристалл прозрачен*. This approach, it is claimed, helps the student in bridging the gap between content and form in language.