

## Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

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### THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

**83–1 Bialystok, Ellen** (Ontario Inst. for studies in Education). The role of linguistic knowledge in second language use. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **4**, 1 (1981), 31–45.

The aim is to examine the hypothesis that there are fundamental differences between using language in different situations or for different purposes, and that these differences may be accounted for in terms of the requirement of the task to be solved on the basis of knowledge represented in a particular way.

First, a means of distinguishing language tasks is described in terms of a continuum from structural to instrumental demands. The role of appropriate knowledge for the solution to tasks along this continuum is examined by proposing two labels for the description of that knowledge – ‘analysed’, or the extent to which it is explicit, and ‘automatic’, or the extent to which it is fluent. The distinction between explicit and implicit linguistic knowledge is elaborated and related to other theoretical and empirical descriptions in the literature which attribute at least two distinct aspects of proficiency to language learners. The language tasks and forms of knowledge are then related by proposing the specific linguistic demands made by tasks at various points along the continuum. Success on a given task requires not only that the relevant information is known by the learner, but also that it is represented appropriately.

**83–2 Buttjes, Dieter.** Landeskunde im Fremdsprachenunterricht. Zwischenbilanz und Arbeitsansätze. [Teaching about the country in the foreign-language course. Interim balance and perspectives.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), **35**, 1 (1982), 3–16.

A model of ‘civilisation’ teaching must consider whether and how the full reality of the foreign society can be communicated, from whose perspective it is to be portrayed, and how content and language interrelate. Historical studies of foreign-language teaching in Germany show the importance attributed to ‘civilisation’, but they do not take sufficiently into account the practice in schools.

Different current approaches are described [Erdmenger & Istel, Schroeder, Buttjes]. The promotion of international understanding is too ambitious a goal, but ‘civilisation’ teaching can contribute to the wider goal of language teaching, viz. the expansion of the pupil’s personality. Teaching about the foreign country is necessarily selective, as no agreed criteria for selection exist so far; hence textbooks vary. Some contrastive studies on culture-specific terms are promising. Course books still play a major role. Collections of extracts on given themes are useful, but material originating in the foreign country sometimes assumes knowledge which it is really the purpose of teaching to promote.

**83-3 Doe, Bob.** Lessons for linguists – is an inquiry needed? *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 3423 (5 Feb. 1982), 10.

Over 80 per cent of pupils now have the chance to study a foreign language, but most drop languages as soon as they can. Poor performance in languages is bad for business as well as for schools, but what is needed is not primarily language specialists but specialists in other fields such as engineering and commerce who can understand and make themselves understood in foreign tongues. The virtual monopoly of French in schools and higher education makes little sense in terms of the UK pattern of trade: German and Spanish are equally important, and there is a need for Italian and Russian. The skills most needed are reading, speaking and listening, with little emphasis on writing. Rather than a single terminal examination, a system of smaller steps or achievement levels is preferable.

In order to assure the survival of the so-called 'minority' languages, such as Spanish and Arabic, the first foreign language taught in schools should vary between schools; this kind of organised diversity would, however, require some sort of national policy on modern languages. A national enquiry could consider the existing provision for minority languages, as well as giving an independent appreciation of recent moves towards developing greater communicative competence.

**83-4 Ehnert, Rolf and others (U. of Bielefeld).** Essen und Trinken als Thema einer kontrastiven Landeskunde, deutsch-englisch-französisch. [Eating and drinking as a subject for comparative cultural studies – German/English/French.] *Bielefelder Beiträge für Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld), 1 (1981), 74–109.

In foreign-language teaching the choice of subject matter and the type of treatment used is determined mainly by linguistic considerations. If students already have a good command of the foreign language, then the subject matter should be the prime consideration in the selection of material. The theme of food and its preparation provides an excellent subject, particularly for lessons in which two or more languages are compared and contrasted. A student should learn about topics such as the eating and drinking habits prevalent in the target country before he becomes conversant with, say, the socio-economic conditions of that country. There are many basic themes of this type – for instance, childhood, sport, old age and death. They are all of universal interest and concern, and they usually spark off lively discussion. Perfect grammatical construction should not be a goal. [Examples from German, French and English.]

**83-5 Gadalla, Barbara J. (Northrop Corp.).** Language acquisition research and the language teacher. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 4, 1 (1981), 60–9.

Selected language acquisition research findings are examined in light of the language teacher's daily needs. Research results are reported that provide an empirical basis for selecting and grading materials, determining skills to be taught and their order of presentation, deciding on classroom presentation and procedures, and formulating evaluation instruments. Acquisition ordering relationships are shown to have a bearing on teaching sequence; that such a sequence should provide for a number of

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grammatical, semantic, and length constraints and a skills order constraint. In addition, the research provides support for a developmental model of learning, stressing the need for a variety of approaches and supporting a cognitively-based orientation for older children and adults. Other age-related variables are considered and their pedagogical consequences are reviewed.

**83–6 Henrici, Gert** (U. of Bielefeld). *Authentischer Fremdsprachenunterricht – einige Anmerkungen*. [Authentic foreign-language teaching – some comments.] *Bielefelder Beiträge für Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld), 2 (1980), 123–34.

Recent research has advocated ‘authentic’ teaching materials, i.e. material which is not produced specifically for teaching purposes. However, rather than rid the learner of inhibitions, this contrived form of authenticity tends actually to create learning blocks. The emphasis should not be on perfect linguistic role simulation by means of the copying of ‘real life’ situations in the foreign country. Rather, the learner should be encouraged to ‘enact himself’ in the conversation, to express his own needs, wishes and interests, albeit with great difficulty and with errors, and sometimes even using the mother tongue. The essential thing is that what the learner says is a genuine representation of what he thinks. Lessons should consist of groups or individuals gathering and discussing information of genuine interest to them, with teachers and pupils interacting as partners. The learner must be allowed greater independence and control of the lesson. Far more foreign-language teaching should be shifted as a matter of course to the target country. The learners should make long and repeated visits, thus sparing them many years of study in institutions.

**83–7 Landriault, Bernard** (U. of Montreal). *La communication: qu’est-ce qu’on enseigne?* [Communication – what to teach?] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), 3, 2 (1981), 35–51.

Communicative competence does not equal linguistic competence. The four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing) depend upon and serve the underlying communicative abilities of interpretation, expression and negotiation. It is possible to conceive of a course based on the functions of language which does not in fact constitute a communicative approach.

An approach directed towards the attainment of communicative competence is distinguished from the structural approach by its point of departure, the learner’s motivation to communicate, and its different types of activities. It is experience-based, arising out of the problems encountered by the students. Grammar is essential but the linguistic code is taught as a means to an end, not as an end in itself. What to teach is intimately linked with how to teach it.

The European approach to language teaching during the last few years has focused on psycholinguistic and socio-linguistic aspects, while interest in the USA has centred on teaching and learning strategies. Perhaps in Canada these approaches can be combined.

**83-8 Moirand, Sophie** (U. of Paris III). L'enseignement de la langue comme instrument de communication: état de la question. [Teaching language as a means of communication.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), 3, 2 (1981), 11-34.

Many definitions of communication, both broad and narrow, are possible but linguistic competence only constitutes one element among many. So-called functional/communicative courses are often little more than grammatical/structural courses disguised. Analysis of authentic conversations along the lines of discourse analysis applied to written texts is essential. However, whatever the frame of reference adopted, such studies can only provide descriptions of how conversations function; they cannot provide models for production and interpretation or illuminate the communicative strategies of the speakers.

If one accepts that communication in the classroom can only be a simulation of real-life communication, teaching must be directed towards developing the communicative potential of the learner which can then be mobilised for use in authentic communicative situations outside the classroom.

**83-9 Trim, John** (CILT). Building a bridge. Modern languages in the Council of Europe 1971-1981. *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 3423 (5 Feb. 1982), 35-6.

For nearly 20 years since the signing of the European Cultural Convention, the Council for Cultural Cooperation has promoted the learning of each other's languages by the peoples of its 22 member states. The main aim was that all European children should be able to study at least one European language at school. This produced a crisis in the '70s as the teaching profession grappled with the problems of the new learners, helped, however, by the approach and practical tools produced by the Council's Modern Languages Project. Despite the jargon ('communicative', 'needs based', 'threshold level') the main approach is an application of common-sense principles, such as: study the learners, what they value, how their minds work; set appropriate objectives; make a realistic assessment of the material and human resources available and make the most of them; differentiate tasks so that all learners can experience success at an appropriate level; judge materials and methods by their success with the learners, rather than the other way round; evaluate positive accomplishment of communication tasks more highly than the avoidance of formal error; provide as much direct experience and exposure to genuine language as possible; build confidence and help students to come to terms with the inevitable inadequacy of their language. The important things are the development of study skills, awareness of how languages are structured and used, and confidence.

The elaboration of the minimum requirements a learner should know - the 'threshold level' - has been applied to English, French, Spanish, German, Italian and Danish and versions are planned for other languages. In Britain, it has reinforced the influence of the Nuffield/Schools Council materials project. The approach is shared by the working parties concerned with the reform of the 16-plus examination, which may prove to be an element in a more flexible system for setting objectives and

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recognising achievement. The new medium-term project of the Council for Cultural Cooperation will concentrate on supporting national programmes of in-service training to equip teachers for the new situation.

**83–10 Wiggli, Hermann** (Zürich). Fremdsprachenlernen durch Kommunikation – Grundzüge eines didaktischen Konzeptes. [Foreign language learning through communication – the essential features of a didactic programme.] *Bulletin C/LA* (Neuchatel), **35** (1982), 42–59.

The article outlines the main features of a didactic programme intended to reform modern-language teaching in Swiss state schools. Traditional teaching methods put the emphasis on the correct form of speech rather than on the content of the speech. But when the content of the speech is merely a vehicle for language learning, the lesson becomes dead. Texts of a traditional nature should be done away with. One can only 'learn' from a text. Even texts in the form of a dialogue actually prevent genuine communication, because they are fixed whereas communication is open-ended. To communicate one must have a partner.

One can indeed differentiate between learning languages and acquiring languages. It is a widely held view that acquiring languages takes place outside the classroom (e.g. as a small child learns from his mother) and that in the classroom one can only 'learn' a foreign language. It is possible to acquire a foreign language in lesson-time, but only when the teacher himself speaks the foreign language fluently. So the most important task of foreign-language teaching is to equip the pupil with the 'intake' necessary for language acquisition.

## PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

**83–11 Cohen, Andrew D.** (Hebrew U. of Jerusalem) and **Hosenfeld, Carol** (State U. of New York at Buffalo). Some uses of mentalistic data in second-language research. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 285–313.

A three-dimensional model for researching mental states is presented involving the dimensions of 'activity', 'time' and 'content'. The activities through which a mental state can be studied are thinking aloud and self-observation (whether analytical or not). Think-aloud data generally reflect present time (within a few seconds of the thought). If self-observation is immediate, it is called 'introspection'; if it does not take place at once, it is 'retrospection' (either immediate or delayed). The content of the thoughts must also be considered.

The authors applied mentalistic techniques to the study of language learning because learners themselves may have important insights into how they learn. Research procedures are discussed: instrumentation, sampling, data collection and analysis. The studies carried out are grouped into skill areas: multiple skills, oral communication, reading, writing (focus on grammar), vocabulary, and test-taking ability [detailed findings given]. It was found that students were able to verbalise and

observe the strategies which they use in class; moreover, these strategies frequently differ from those teachers assume they are using. A current application of the research involves collecting data on learners' thought-processes during a typical lesson and includes the use of short questionnaires during the lesson. On average, half the class are attending to the content at any given moment; they process different thoughts simultaneously at different levels of attention.

**83-12 Eckman, Fred R.** (U. of Wisconsin-Milwaukee). On predicting phonological difficulty in second-language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), **4**, 1 (1981), 18-30.

The amount of influence that a learner's native language has on the acquisition of a second language is an issue which has received considerable attention in research on second language acquisition. The thesis of this paper is that, within the context of the Interlanguage Hypothesis (Selinker, 1972) and the Markedness Differential Hypothesis (Eckman, 1977), some important properties of a learner's interlanguage (IL) can be predicted.

More specifically, it is shown that speakers of Cantonese and Japanese internalise different IL rules in attempting to deal with English word-final voice contrasts. Whereas speakers of Cantonese devoice word-final obstruents in the target language, Japanese speakers insert a word-final schwa after the voiced obstruent. However, each of these rules can be correlated with facts about the phonology of the native language, supporting the conclusion that some important aspects of ILs can be predicted on the basis of a comparison of the native and target languages.

**83-13 Flege, James Emil** (Northwestern U.). The phonological basis of foreign accent: a hypothesis. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 4 (1981), 443-55.

Foreign accent is often thought to be the result of an age-related diminution in the ability to learn to pronounce languages. Existing studies of L2 pronunciation, however, do not seem to support the claim that there is some fundamental difference between children and adults in phonetic learning ability. The continued presence of foreign accent may instead be a consequence of the establishment of stable phonological representations for sounds and words in the native language. Language learners who perceive sounds in the target language to be phonologically identical to native-language sounds (despite possible phonetic differences between the two languages) may base whatever phonetic learning that does occur during the acquisition process on an acoustic model provided by pairs of similar sounds in two languages, rather than on a single language-specific acoustic model as in first-language acquisition. Thus an adult or child learner of a foreign language may retain the same kind of phonetic learning ability evident in early childhood and yet still speak with an accent because phonological translation provides a two-language source of phonetic input that may ultimately limit progress in learning to pronounce a foreign language.

**83–14 Gallimore, Ronald** (U. of California) and **Tharp, Roland G.** (U. of Hawaii). The interpretation of elicited sentence imitation in a standardised context. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 369–92.

Elicited imitation has been used to study language acquisition and ability, language disorders, and non-standard dialects. While it was initially assumed that elicited imitation reflected knowledge of grammar, later work suggests considerable variability in performance, e.g. children do not always imitate sentences they are known to have spontaneously produced at another time. This paper reviews research on elicited sentence imitation, distinguishing naturalistic and standardised applications of the technique. A six-year programme of research is summarised which suggests that elicited imitation in a standardised context yields highly stable individual difference scores, improvement with age in accuracy of imitation, superior performance by middle-class students, correlations between 'imitation' tests and natural environment language performances, significant correlations between elicited imitation and widely used tests of general verbal ability, and statistical evidence that elicited imitation reflects knowledge of grammar, short-term memory, and knowledge of vocabulary. The inconsistency of child imitations noted by some researchers may be a function of age and nonstandardised observation procedures.

**83–15 Hansen, Jacqueline** (Boulder Valley Public Schools) and **Stansfield, Charles** (U. of Colorado). The relationship of field dependent–independent cognitive styles to foreign language achievement. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 349–67.

Psychological literature on field independence indicates that a field-independent person possesses enhanced cognitive restructuring abilities, while a field-dependent individual is likely to possess well-developed interpersonal skills. It was hypothesised that field independence would be related to the acquisition of linguistic competence, and that field dependence would be related to the acquisition of communicative competence. Approximately 300 students enrolled in a first semester college Spanish class were administered the Group Embedded Figures Test of field dependence/independence. Those scores were then correlated with scores on tests of linguistic, communicative, and integrative competence. Student sex and scholastic aptitude were included in the design as moderator variables. The results indicate that field independence plays a role in second-language learning. This role was particularly noticeable in the acquisition of linguistic competence and integrative competence. It was only barely noticeable in the acquisition of communicative competence. Some classroom implications are discussed.

**83–16 Huebner, Thom** (U. of Hawaii). Order-of-acquisition vs. dynamic paradigm: a comparison of method in interlanguage research. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 1 (1979) [publ. 1982], 21–8.

Much of the research in recent years on interlanguage focuses on the order of acquisition of morphemes as determined by their appearance in obligatory Standard English contexts. Although this approach to interlanguage research may reveal an

acquisition order (Dulay & Burt, 1974) or difficulty order (Bailey, Madden & Krashen, 1974) of the morphemes under study, it fails to recognise the systematic use of English functors before they acquire Standard English functions and to explicate the interrelationships of the various areas of the interlanguage syntax. This paper reports on the development of the article system in an adult's interlanguage over a one-year period. It compares the results of a conventional order-of-acquisition analysis with a paradigm model based on Bickerton (1975). It concludes that: (1) differences in approach to data analysis result in different and sometimes apparently opposing conclusions concerning the nature of interlanguage; (2) the early stages of the interlanguage reflect considerable relexification of the first language; (3) functors judged ungrammatical by the order-of-acquisition approach apparently have well defined functions within the interlanguage and follow systematic paths toward the standard use; and (4) those paths, like those in the depidginisation process, are at least in part determined by psycholinguistic forces such as ambiguity avoidance.

**83-17 Jansen, Bert and others** (U. of Amsterdam). The alternation hypothesis: acquisition of Dutch word order by Turkish and Moroccan foreign workers. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 315-36.

The acquisition of Dutch word order (in particular the positions of the verb and the preposition) by 16 Turkish and Moroccan foreign workers residing in Amsterdam is described. The theoretical framework is the Alternation Hypothesis, which states that when the target language offers an alternation between two patterns (e.g. verb final and verb second, as in Dutch), a second-language learner will tend to overgeneralise the pattern existing in his or her first language (e.g. verb final in Turkish, verb second in Moroccan Arabic). The hypothesis is partly confirmed by the data. Reliance on first language structures is frequent in the early stages of the process of acquisition of the alternating orders involved, but almost absent in later stages.

**83-18 Krashen, Stephen D.** (U. of Southern California). The 'fundamental pedagogical principle' in second-language teaching. *Studia Linguistica* (Lund, Sweden), **35**, 1/2 (1981), 50-70.

The theoretical background for the 'fundamental principle' consists of five hypotheses, briefly reviewed here: (1) acquisition/learning, (2) natural order, (3) Monitor, (4) Input and (5) affective filter. These five are summarised with the single claim that people acquire second languages when they obtain comprehensible input, and when their affective filters (or mental blocks) are low enough to allow the input 'in'. In other words, comprehensible input delivered in a low-filter situation is the only 'causative variable' in second-language acquisition.

This helps to resolve such problems as (a) the effect of instruction - language teaching is helpful in providing comprehensible input (CI) but is of less value where a rich source of CI is available outside the classroom; (b) age - older acquirers are better at getting CI than younger children (i.e. better at 'conversational management') but children outperform adults eventually because the strength of the affective filter is sharply increased at puberty.

Application of the 'fundamental principle' to pedagogy is that any instructional



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technique which helps second-language acquisition does so by providing CI. The 'fundamental pedagogical principle' predicts that traditional methods will not succeed very well, as they supply little CI. Both grammar-type methods and audio-lingual teaching emphasise early and accurate output which has the effect of raising the 'affective filter'. Some of the newer methods should do better, i.e. Total Physical Response and Suggestopedia. The goal of the classroom should be to develop 'intermediate' second-language competence, to bring the student to the point where he can improve on his own. Supplementary CI is needed to aid the transition from the class to the real world: possible transition activities are: the media, the language laboratory and subject matter teaching (using the second language as a medium of instruction). An 'international course' is suggested at university level, to help foreign students by providing initial subject matter teaching geared specially for them by teachers who are aware of their linguistic and cultural deficits.

**83-19 Krashen, Stephen D. (U. of Southern California) and others.** Age, rate and eventual attainment in second-language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 4 (1979) [publ. 1982], 573-82.

This paper presents evidence for three generalisations concerning the relationship between age, rate, and eventual attainment in second-language acquisition: (1) adults proceed through early stages of syntactic and morphological development faster than children (where time and exposure are held constant). (2) Older children acquire faster than younger children (again, in early stages of morphological and syntactic development where time and exposure are held constant). (3) Acquirers who begin natural exposure to second languages during childhood generally achieve higher second-language proficiency than those beginning as adults. While recent research reports have claimed to be counter to the hypothesis that there is a critical period for language acquisition, the available literature is consistent with the three generalisations presented above.

**83-20 Lamendella, John T. (San José State U.).** The neurofunctional basis of pattern practice. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 1 (1979) [publ. 1982], 5-19.

An explanation is proposed for the substantial failure of pattern-practice drills to equip most second-language learners with the ability to automatically access target language grammatical knowledge in communicative interactions. The hypothesised explanation is based on the neurofunctional approach described in Lamendella (1977) and Selinker and Lamendella (1978) [see abstract 79-367]. Relevant theoretical results of clinicopathological investigations in neurolinguistics include the existence of a dominant hemisphere speech copying circuit which depends on functional interactions between those neocortical systems involved in the elaboration of auditory speech input and those neocortical systems involved in the control of articulatory speech output. Taken together, conduction aphasia and the transcortical aphasias point out the functional autonomy of the cross-channel speech processing circuit from higher-level language processing, and the special status of imitation, repetition, and certain forms of

substitution and completion as distinct forms of speech behaviour separable from propositional language. During mechanical pattern-practice drills, many second-language learners may functionally disassociate the speech copying circuit from higher-level language processing systems (and from the language acquisition process) as an efficient means of performing a repetitious cognitive task not related to communicative interactions.

**83-21 Oller, John W., Jr.** (U. of New Mexico). Language as intelligence? *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 465-92.

The interpenetration of language skills (at the deepest levels) and intelligence (as the latter is defined by psychologists and psychometricians) has been a topic of great interest for many years. However, the full extent of the relationship may easily be missed if one relies on the traditional distinction between the constructs of language and intelligence and especially if one makes the common error of associating language too closely with speech. The purpose of this paper is to pose, if only for the sake of argument, the question, could intelligence perhaps be language based after all? Definitions of intelligence are easy to come by but hard to agree on. However, all theorists seem to agree on certain fundamental characteristics of intelligence and intelligent behaviour. Arguments and findings from biology – particularly genetics and also from the neurosciences – are offered to at least support the plausibility of a deep relationship between language and intelligence. It is suggested that the formative power of words is somehow related to the simplest levels of biological organisation and also the highest levels of human cognition. Support for this suggestion is drawn from psychometric studies as well as a content analysis of the construct ‘nonverbal’ intelligence. Some tentative inferences are offered to relate the foregoing arguments to the business of education.

**83-22 Scarcella, Robin C.** (U. of California) and **Higa, Corrine** (U. of Southern California). Input, negotiation and age differences in second-language acquisition. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 2 (1981), 409-37.

This paper examines input and negotiation in child and adolescent second-language acquisition. Two hypotheses are tested: (1) that adult native speakers provide more simplified input to younger learners than to older learners; and (2) that older learners use more conversational negotiation devices and techniques than younger learners. To test these hypotheses, 14 Spanish speakers (just beginning to acquire English), seven children and seven adolescents, were paired with 14 adult native English speakers in such a way that 14 conversational dyads were formed. To provide baseline data, an additional 14 native-English speakers were matched with each other. Each dyad was asked to participate in a block-building task. Conversations during these tasks were audiotaped, transcribed and analysed. The analysis provides evidence which is consistent with the two research hypotheses presented above.

**83–23 Seliger, Herbert W.** (Queens Coll., CUNY). On the nature and function of language rules in language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 3 (1979) [publ. 1982], 359–69.

This article examines claims made for the monitor model with regard to the function of conscious grammar rules as mechanisms which control the quality of the learner's language production under certain conditions. An experiment is reported in which subjects were asked to perform a language task which required the use of the indefinite article. After the task, subjects, including children and adults, were asked to explain their performance. Their verbal explanations were assumed to represent their conscious knowledge. The adequacy of these 'conscious rules' was compared to the subjects' performance. As expected, no relationship was found for 'good' and 'bad' rules and quality of the learners' performance on the task. These results are discussed in light of what is known about language learning in particular, learning from a cognitive viewpoint, and the nature of language. Conscious rules do have a function, but not as monitors.

## RESEARCH METHODS

**83–24 Gass, Susan** (U. of Michigan). Variability in L2 experimental data. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), **6**, 1 (1980), 60–74.

In experimental second-language acquisition research and in psycholinguistic research in general, the experimenter faces several problems in interpreting results. One problem is practical: different conclusions can be drawn from different tests and experiments. A second problem, clearly related to the first, has theoretical import: how is it possible for the results of well devised tests and experiments to suggest different answers to the same research question? This paradox is one which researchers are constantly faced with in their quest for the experiment which correctly represents the knowledge possessed by a language learner. Yet it seems reasonable to question whether any task represents a learner's total knowledge or only a subpart of it. In this paper, a different perspective is suggested, that the apparent paradox only arises under the influence of questionable assumptions, chief among which is the belief that the psychologically real representation of linguistic knowledge is neutral between perception and production and underlies all aspects of language use. Data are presented from two experimental settings: in the first, the acquisition of relative clauses by adult L2 learners. The non-exactness of fit between the elicitation tasks given to the same learner in the same experimental setting are discussed. In the second experiment, data are presented from adult L2 learners who made judgments of their own production. Again, the non-exactness of fit between a learner's productive and receptive knowledge of the target language are discussed.

**83–25 Hewitt, Graham** (U. of Stirling). A critique of research methods in the study of reading comprehension. *British Educational Research Journal* (Oxford), **8**, 1 (1982), 9–21.

Much research on reading comprehension has used an inappropriate methodology and the interpretation of results has often been based on the erroneous use of statistics. Two major approaches to the study of reading comprehension are distinguished, the psychometric and the cognitive, and representative studies are briefly described. These two approaches suffer from fundamental methodological weaknesses, principally in the areas of measurement, theory and generalisation, which limit the scientific worth of their findings. Research on reading comprehension needs to develop alternative methodologies which have a more qualitative orientation. This would involve a reconceptualisation of reading comprehension and what counts as valid data. Such a methodology would be based on fieldwork in naturalistic settings, using naturalistic texts and tasks and would make use of observational techniques. Thus researchers could attempt to answer both the traditional questions and those not previously asked.

## TESTING

**83–26 Alderson, J. Charles** (U. of Michigan). The cloze procedure and proficiency in English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 2 (1979) [publ. 1982], 219–27.

The cloze test has received considerable attention in recent years from testers and teachers of English as a foreign language, and is becoming more widely used in language tests, both in the classroom and in standardised tests. However, most of the research has been carried out with native speakers of English and the results do not produce clear-cut evidence that the cloze test is a valid test of reading comprehension. The article reports on a series of experiments carried out on the cloze procedure where the variables of text difficulty, scoring procedure and deletion frequency were systematically varied and that variation examined for its effect on the relationship of the cloze test to measures of proficiency in English as a foreign language. Previous assumptions about what the cloze procedure tests are questioned and it is suggested that cloze tests are not suitable tests of higher-order language skills, but can provide a measure of lower-order core proficiency. Testers and teachers should not assume that the procedure will produce automatically valid tests of proficiency in English as a foreign language.

**83–27 Canale, Michael** (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Communication: how to evaluate it. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **3**, 2 (1981), 77–94.

Five criteria in judging the usefulness and quality of any good test are validity, reliability, practicality, acceptability and feedback potential. An adequate test of communication must satisfy two main conditions: (1) it must be based on sound descriptions of communication and proficiency in communicating, or 'communicative

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competence'; (2) these descriptions must be reflected not only in the test content (what is to be measured) but also in test method (how content is to be measured), i.e. test formats, administration and scoring procedures.

Two main ways in which evaluation of communication can be made more practical are (a) to reduce the time and cost involved in test administration and scoring, and (b) to try to develop tests that address core rather than peripheral aspects of communication and from which the results would be maximally generalisable. Concrete suggestions along these lines include group testing, which seems suitable for assessing oral communication skills, and 'holistic' (impressionistic) scoring with multiple judges.

**83–28 Carroll, Brendan J.** (British Council, London). Specifications for an English language testing service. *ELT Documents* (London), 111 (1981), 66–110.

The Council's existing testing system has become unsatisfactory both because (a) the size of the placement problem has grown enormously – the number of applicants for training in Britain has grown and the range of courses of study has expanded; and (b) because of changing approaches to test development language teaching and testing methods have shifted their emphasis from atomistic language features to broader features of linguistic communication, postponing consideration of language realisations until the communicative needs of all users have been clearly determined. The way to improve the testing service is to diversify the test instruments to meet the wide range of test situations. The questions which need answering about any student are whether he is likely to be able to meet the communicative demands of his course, or how much tuition he would need to bring him up to the required level.

A specification is being compiled to build up profiles of the communicative needs of students on study programmes in Britain [the parameters are described]. Specifications have been prepared for six areas: business studies, agricultural science, medicine, social survival (academic), civil engineering, and laboratory technician. [Appendix gives specifications.] They cover purpose of study, settings for English (surprisingly uniform), interactions, instrumentality (receptive/productive skills, spoken written media), dialect (usually contemporary English and local varieties), target level (size and complexity of text), events and activities (what participants have to do), attitudinal tone index (recognition and production), language skills (54 categories), and microfunctions.

The implications for test design are that language skill requirements cut right across disciplinary boundaries: important factors are (1) general, i.e. common communicative requirements, (2) academic study, i.e. ability to use skills necessary for handling academic discourse, (3) personal relationships, and (4) special additional requirements of odd-man-out programmes. A framework for measurement intelligible to non-specialists is suggested. Operational requirements of overseas representations are discussed: these include availability of tests, quick results, a rapid screening device, cost and security.

Recommendations are that a two-level testing pattern should be adopted with a quick screening test followed by a modular test pattern covering skills appropriate to six major areas. A 'shadow' test pattern will be tried out.

**83–29 Henning, Grant** (American U., Cairo) **and others.** Comprehensive assessment of language proficiency and achievement among learners of English as a foreign language. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 4 (1981), 457–66.

Seven subscales of English language proficiency were devised and administered to 184 Egyptian students at the third year secondary stage. The purpose was to identify optimal combinations and weights of these subscales for predicting EFL proficiency while following constraints imposed by the nature of the syllabus. Error Identification, Grammar Accuracy, Vocabulary, and Composition subscales were indicated as best predictors, but Error Identification was ultimately replaced by Reading Comprehension to better evaluate course objectives. Error Identification was indicated as an indirect measure of composition writing ability.

**83–30 Palmer, Adrian S.** (U. of Utah) **and Bachman, Lyle F.** (U. of Illinois). Basic concerns in test validation. *ELT Documents* (London), **111** (1981), 135–51.

The basic types of test validity (the extent to which a test measures what it is supposed to measure) are briefly reviewed: face validity (the appearance of validity); content validity (the extent to which the selection of tasks is representative of the larger set (universe) of tasks of which the test is assumed to be a sample); criterion-referenced validity (the extent to which a test predicts something considered important), and construct validity (the relationship between a test and the psychological abilities it measures). A procedure called 'multitrait-multimethod convergent-discriminant construct validation' requires gathering data to assess convergent validity (how well test scores agree) and discriminant validity (how much test scores differ).

Types of construct validation studies are described: principal-component analytic studies, and multitrait-multimethod correlational studies of language tests, together with a study which affirmed the hypothesis that two language-use skills, speaking and reading, which differ in both direction and channel, are psychologically distinct and can be measured independently. Confirmation factor analysis was used to statistically evaluate the fit of causal models to the body of data. This makes it possible to identify and quantify the effects of trait and method on test scores. The findings support Oller's divisible language competence model.

**83–31 Ricciardi, Joseph and Edwards, Gregg** (Official Languages Directorate, Ottawa). Investigating occupational communication needs in the perspective of communicative performance testing. *TESL Talk* (Toronto), **13**, 1 (1982), 55–74.

A project is described which aimed to specify the language communication needs of a large category of employees of the Public Service of Canada, as an aid to the design and development of tests of communicative proficiency. As there are approximately 54,000 bilingual positions in the Public Service, the main employment categories were investigated one at a time, beginning with the Administrative Support Category, which accounts for 31 per cent of all bilingual positions and includes clerical and secretarial services and machine operators. A preliminary study provided information

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for the setting up of a list of job tasks which implied some use of language; they involved primarily face-to-face or telephone exchanges, the reading of manuals, notes or correspondence, the writing of notes or correspondence. The list of language activities was then verified and their approximate distribution by types of position was determined, using case-study interviews of 102 employees [interviewers' reporting format is given in an appendix]. Certain 'macro-activities' were found to be characteristic of many of the job-types sampled; they consisted of groups of micro-activities. This helped to make a link between detailed activities for testing and the positions with which the activities are usually associated. A 'map' of mode interactions and sequences was also constructed, to illustrate typical cycles of language-related activity for various occupations.

**83-32 Vollmer, Helmut J.** (U. of Osnabrück, Germany). Why are we interested in 'general language proficiency'? *ELT Documents* (London), **111** (1981), 152-71.

Research at the Max-Planck-Institut für Bildungsforschung in Berlin aims to study evidence for the 'unitary competence' and 'divisible competence' hypothesis – to discover whether all performance in a second/foreign language can be traced back to a single underlying factor, 'general language proficiency' (GLP). Two different lines of research are (1) the divisible competence hypothesis (the assumption that there are a number of specific competencies underlying language behaviour) – this approach has given rise to discrete-point tests. The term 'overall proficiency', or GLP, is not used: the aim is to find the learner's specific proficiency in terms of the content area defined and the criteria used. There is an implied need for some judgement of a learner's 'transfer ability', i.e. ability to use the language being tested in another situation. (2) The notion of 'overall proficiency' as used by Spolsky is misleading and seems to refer rather to an 'underlying linguistic competence'. Oller and others believe that unitary linguistic competence is the principal factor underlying all language skills. However, much evidence suggests that language as comprehension and language as production are profoundly different, even if there is insufficient evidence to claim that there are basically two distinguishable competences.

GLP may perhaps be the centre of a person's general cognitive apparatus (about which admittedly little is known), but in this case should it not be called 'global'? If foreign-language learning is a dynamic process, testing proficiency means making a cut at a given point in order to form a rough idea of a person's progress. Testing should therefore be carried out repeatedly, preferably by different means.

**83-33 Weller, Franz-Rudolf.** Schülerwettbewerb Fremdsprachen – Eine Forderungsinitiative des Stiferverbands für die Deutsche Wissenschaft. [Foreign languages competition in schools: an initiative of the Association of Sponsors of German Science.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **80**, 6 (1981), 541-57.

A national competition in foreign languages for pupils at school has been introduced in the Federal Republic of Germany in 1981-2 after a successful trial run in two

*Länder*. In the pilot scheme, 24 out of 133 competitors reached the third round, and four girls gained first prize. Pupils must offer at least two languages and are tested in both, though at different levels. The tests are both written and oral, supervised and unsupervised; a multilingual group discussion occurs in the third round [details of tests and assessment procedures]. The aim is not, as in mathematics, to identify early brilliance, but to enhance language study (currently being criticised) at school and to stress the value in multilingual Europe of knowing more than one foreign language.

## CURRICULUM PLANNING

**83–34 Hawkins, Eric.** Who decides the curriculum? *Times Educational Supplement* (London), 3423 (5 Feb. 1982), 33–4.

There is stalemate and confusion in discussions of the shape the curriculum should take. Crucial issues are still unresolved, including the most basic: what should be the objectives of foreign-language teaching and especially what is its cultural value? Yet plans are far advanced to merge the existing GCE and CSE examination boards into regional 16-plus boards without prior provision for regional discussion of curricula. The level at which issues are discussed is disappointing, for example, no attempt is made to distinguish between the horizontal curriculum model (the head teacher's view) and the vertical model (the child's view, as he grows up and moves from school to school). As family mobility increases, between a quarter and a third of pupils change local education authority at least once.

So 'who decides the curriculum'? The theoretical position is confused and bears no relation to what happens in practice. The Department of Education and Science paper *The School Curriculum* suggests a division of responsibility between the state, the local education authority and the school. In practice, the head teacher makes the decision, albeit hedged around by powerful forces such as the examining boards, the demands of universities and peer-group pressures on the children. A strengthened Schools Council might act as a curriculum 'think tank' linked to regional curriculum boards, each of which corresponds to a regional examination board.

## COURSE/MATERIALS DESIGN

**83–35 Besse, Henri (CREDIF, ENS de Saint-Cloud).** The pedagogic authenticity of a text. *ELT Documents Special* (London), 1981, 20–7.

It is difficult to pass judgement on the authenticity of a text when it is seen outside the context intended for it. Used in an undefined manner, 'authenticity' has 'too many connotations to be honest'; when defined, it is usually in terms of the status of the producer and receiver of the text, or in terms of the function assigned to it within the communication (the speaker's intention). Under the former criterion, authenticity is defined as 'any written or oral message produced by a French speaker for French speakers'. But the authors of textbook dialogues are usually native speakers. And if it is adaptation to the limited knowledge of the receivers/students which makes the



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text non-authentic, this adaptation is a practice used in all speech communities, by journalists, parents, specialists, etc. The second criterion, speaker's intention, defines as authentic 'any text not composed for pedagogical ends'. But this excludes texts which would otherwise seem to qualify as authentic, e.g. posters, films, announcements, articles, grammars and guides, intended to inform and teach. Thus neither of the two criteria are sufficient in themselves.

Authenticity of reception by the students in a language class is a further criterion. Some of the exercises and explanations devised to cope with the difficulties presented by authentic texts are as artificial as 'invented' dialogues. The originally intended function of the text is bound to be affected by the function of learning, though this distortion can be lessened by trying to recreate reception conditions as close as possible to those of any authentic communication situation. Since there is an inbuilt artificiality in using a foreign language at all, it might be preferable to introduce an incongruous or unexpected element to overturn habitual conditions of production and reception.

Three concepts essential for a definition of authenticity are (1) the integrality of the text, which should not be cut, reworked or modified in any way, (2) the original authenticity of the text, i.e. the linguistic and non-linguistic conditions of its original production and reception, not easily transferred to the classroom; (3) pedagogical authenticity (the student's response to the text), which comprises (a) the use made of the text in teaching, and (b) the quality of its actual reception by the students. Under (a), the students must interpret the text for themselves. Under (b), the teacher should try to restore something of the linguistic and cultural background, to avoid lowering the interpretative level. The use of texts whose referential basis is familiar to learners helps here.

**83–36 Crocker, Tony** (British Council). 'Scenes of endless science': ESP and education. *ELT Documents* (London), 112 (1981), 7–15.

The main concern in LSP courses is achieving something outside of language through the medium of language (rather than an identified level of proficiency in the language itself), i.e. language is seen as a means rather than an end. Who should therefore define course objectives? Ideally they should be negotiated between the subject specialist and the language specialist, though an appropriate terminology is lacking. There are no constraints on content or methodology if the primary interest is in outcomes. The teacher, on the other hand, must take full responsibility for what he/she does. The orientation in the training of LSP teachers should be towards the teacher as facilitator of learning rather than as source of information. Current practice views methodology as a component of the teaching skill rather than as an encompassing framework. Three areas of information relevant to the selection of methodological techniques are (1) context – features of the background likely to influence learning and teaching style, (2) learning environment – psychosocial factors of the learning group, and (3) content. The training offered to LSP teachers should help them to improve their bargaining power – if quantifiable objectives are set, it is easier to estimate the resources required; if resources are fixed, objectives must be negotiable. [The whole issue is devoted to 'the ESP teacher'.]

**83-37 Litwack, David M.** (General Telepone and Electronics). Procedure: the key to developing an ESP curriculum. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **13**, 3 (1979) [publ. 1982], 383-91.

There is a need for specially designed ESP curricula to support the transfer of technology and for an efficient procedure for designing such curricula. The focus in this article is on industrial training that includes language training as an essential component. Technical trainers (and language-training organisations devoted to supporting them) believe that a specific purposes curriculum is necessary to the training process for two reasons: (a) trainees will eventually use a narrowly focused stratum of English and certain specifiable language skills on the job; (b) trainees are often recruited from among the less educated population, and hired with limited proficiency, and can be given only limited time in which to master the language they need.

Six steps are described for developing skill-based ESP curricula for intensive, technology-oriented training programmes: (1) analysing client needs, (2) sourcing classroom material, (3) writing/editing the material, (4) exercising the material, (5) editing the product, and (6) piloting/revising the product. The details for each step include descriptions of lesson formats and editing techniques. This procedural guideline is based on nearly four years of language training and curriculum development experience in the US and abroad.

## TEACHER TRAINING

**83-38 Johns, T. F.** (U. of Birmingham). Some problems of a world-wide profession. *ELT Documents* (London), **112** (1981), 16-22.

A short questionnaire was devised for an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) workshop, which asked teachers to rank certain problems associated with EAP teaching. The results, in rank order of importance, were: (1) low priority in timetabling, resulting in classes very early or late in the day, and during the lunch-break, (2) lack of personal/professional contact with subject teachers, (3) lower status/grade than subject teachers, (4) isolation from other teachers of English doing similar work, and (5) lack of respect from students. The theme which recurs insistently is that of professionalism: how far the teachers' activities are seen as professional, both by themselves and others.

## TEACHING METHODS

**83-39 Boyle, Joseph** (Chinese U. of Hong Kong). The strategies for improving lexical proficiency in ESP. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), **6**, 1 (1980), 86-93.

Taking the example of Business English, the article looks at various aspects of the specialist lexis of such writing. The individual vocabulary items can be the teaching

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tool for structural exercises of an appropriate nature. The sub-technical can be included in exercises primarily aimed at teaching the strictly technical [examples]. General interest topics, in the broad area of business, should be used in conjunction with more technical texts, especially if the purpose of the learner is to be able to communicate with the layman as well as with the specialist. The enormity of the task of teaching technical, subtechnical and general vocabulary must be realised. Criteria for effective grading are discussed. The reliability of word-counts is examined. Learning from the context is seen as more difficult in many ESP texts. The usefulness of etymological knowledge, however, must not be ignored, especially in some types of ESP. While it is true that certain lexical items are best left to the specialist teacher to teach, preferably by showing the actual object referred to, on the other hand the ESP teacher must see the sub-technical, and at times the technical, as being also his province.

**83-40 Brennan, Moya (Hong Kong Poly.) and Woodbury Miller, Janet** (Syracuse U., NY). *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **36**, 3 (1982), 169-74.

A problem faced by many teachers is that their audio-visual centre lacks software. A practical solution is for teachers to make their own videotape – which is not as difficult or as intimidating as it sounds. The main part of this article takes the teacher through the various steps: (1) planning the format of the programme – the topic, the language teaching points, the situations, the drills; (2) organising the students – preparing in the classroom, the actual filming, the editing; and (3) using the finished videotape in the classroom – how to ‘teach’ with it, exercises to accompany the videotape, and follow-up activities. The time required and the types of language activities involved at each stage are discussed, and the pitfalls are mentioned. [Examples are given from ‘Seeing a doctor in China’, one of six English language-teaching videotapes made over a period of a year with second-year university students in China. Excerpts from the camera script and exercises.]

**83-41 Brown, Gillian (U. of Edinburgh).** Teaching the spoken language. *Studia Linguistica* (Lund, Sweden), **35**, 1/2 (1981), 166-82.

A distinction is made between primarily transactional (i.e. message-oriented) speech and primarily interactional (i.e. listener-oriented) speech; the former is mainly used to transfer information, the latter for establishing and maintaining social relationships. A second distinction is made between ‘long turns’ and ‘short turns’; in the former, one speaker becomes responsible for the structure for a while, in the latter, a speaker contributes as little as one word or up to three or four phrasal or clausal chunks to a mutually structured conversation. Although it is proper to pay particular attention to the forms and functions of short turns in the early stages of language teaching (mother tongue), there are some features of long turns which adolescents appear not to control very well, such as the ability to identify what they are talking about, and to maintain a distinction between competing referents.

A third distinction is between spoken language influenced by written language (as

produced by highly literate members of literate societies) and spoken language not influenced by written language, as produced by young people. The former is usually taken as the norm in foreign-language teaching, hence one reason for lack of success in teaching it to students for whom it is not an attainable standard. The amount of language knowledge needed for adequate production can be rather limited but comprehension demands active listener-participation.

Work being carried out with adolescent native speakers of English is described which has implications for foreign-language teaching. It involves teaching them strategies to help them to communicate information efficiently – particular reference is made here to the speaker's ability to identify what he is talking about. The eventual aim is to construct an index indicating the relative difficulty of particular tasks with reference to particular features.

**83-42 Bruce, Bertram (Bolt Beranek and Newman Inc.).** A social interaction model of reading. *Discourse Processes* (Norwood, NJ), 4, 4 (1981), 273-311.

An author and a reader are engaged in a social interaction which depends on their goals and their beliefs about the world and each other. One aspect of this interaction is the creation of another level of social interaction involving an 'implied author' and an 'implied reader'. The newly created characters may, in their turn, create another level of social interaction involving, for example, a 'narrator' and a 'narratee'. Each level so created permits the creation of an additional level. A model for the levels of social interaction in reading is discussed in the paper. The model provides a framework for examining devices such as author commentary, irony, stories within stories, first person narration and point of view. Examples such as *Benjamin Bunny* and *The Turn of the Screw* are discussed.

**83-43 Brumfit, Christopher (U. of London Institute of Education).** Reading skills and the study of literature in a foreign language. *System* (Oxford), 9, 1 (1981), 243-8.

Consideration is given to the relationship between reading in a foreign language and the teaching of literature. Literature provides a useful source of content for a foreign-language course; it is the most autonomous and individualisable ability in language work. It offers the worthwhile content necessary to make advanced language teaching really effective. A true literature syllabus will not be simply the use of literary texts for advanced language purposes but an attempt to develop or extend literary competence, the recognition of the codes and interpretation of the conventions being operated. To develop this literary awareness in a foreign language is a demanding task, made more difficult by the confusion which reigns in the teaching of mother-tongue literature. A literature syllabus in the mother tongue will relate to the total educational and cultural context.

A simple pedagogical model for literature teaching is discussed which is based on developing response to the text in all its aspects, and the ability to generalise from it, either to other aspects of the literary tradition or to personal/social significances outside literature. Comparison of similar types of texts is helpful. Such a model can

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be applied to foreign-language work: students should be able to work at various levels of sophistication, extending the capabilities already developed in mother-tongue literary work. Criteria for the selection of texts for advanced work in teaching foreign literatures are: linguistic level, cultural level, length, pedagogical role, genre representation, and classic status.

**83–44 Carpenter, Cristin (U. of Michigan) and Hunter, Judy (Seneca Coll.).** Functional exercises: improving overall coherence in ESL writing. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 4 (1981), 425–34.

Teaching advanced writing in ESL classes presents several difficulties, ranging from methods for coping with large, heterogeneous classes to the scarcity of ESL materials concerned with the organisation of writing above the paragraph level. A versatile design for writing exercises initially developed for the University of Michigan EAP classes is offered here. The design has two purposes: (1) to provide more individualised instruction for advanced writing students, thereby helping them to write more effectively in the genres they will actually need to use, and (2) to acquaint students with some of the English thought patterns which underly the organisation of longer units of discourse, from compositions to full-length academic papers.

The design for advanced writing materials isolates one organisational function at a time for intensive practice, includes practice in the use of appropriate discourse signals, and stresses the need for integrating functional reading and writing activities. The rationale behind this approach is discussed, the design presented and illustrated with samples of exercises on writing introductions to compositions, academic papers and letters.

**83–45 Cook, V. J. (U. of Essex).** Structure drills and the language learner. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **38**, 2 (1982), 321–9.

The classic type of structure drill is when the students produce a series of sentences that use the same grammatical structure with slight variation in response to clues given by the teacher. The student has to process information in order to arrive at the sentence he is supposed to produce, but it is far from the normal way of processing information in conversation. The drill technique must also take account of the learner's limited processing capacity.

The strategy used in the classic drill is one found only within the classroom, in that the students have no chance of choosing a strategy for themselves. Contextualised drills are a development of the classic drill; they are set within a conversation but there is still only one possible answer, although the student is building patterns of conversational interaction.

Drills were originally intended to build up automatic responses, but we now believe that the learner develops successive temporary systems, and learns by actively engaging in communication and expressing his own ideas. A way of reconciling these different approaches is to retain the drill as a brief conversational exchange but to allow the student a certain freedom of choice. The situational dialogue is like the drill, a series of exchanges, though these are linked together and there is a choice of

grammatical structure. Yet it is still a meaningless activity because they are taken out of context and have nothing to do with what the student wants to say in the classroom.

One solution at the early stages of language learning is the conversational exchange exercise. After listening to model exchanges, the students take over and choose from a checklist whatever items they need to express their own opinions within the controlled format of the exchange.

**83-46 Di Pietro, Robert J.** (U. of Delaware). The open-ended scenerio: a new approach to conversation. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 15-20.

Teachers continue to seek ways to impart conversational skills which extend beyond the limits of short, circumscribed dialogues. Role-playing is one such way, but it too has its limitations. The open-ended scenario was developed to expand the role-playing technique by introducing new information into a predetermined situation so as to force decisions and alter the direction of the action. In this way, students learn to make communicational choices and to develop verbal strategies consistent with their own interactional styles.

**83-47 Dudley-Evans, A. and Johns, T. F** (U. of Birmingham). A team-teaching approach to lecture comprehension for overseas students. *ELT Documents Special* (London), 1981, 30-46.

Language classes for overseas students run by Birmingham University concentrate on common-core language appropriate for students from a wide range of subject areas. Most of the formal features of English and the communicative uses to which it is put are remarkably consistent across different disciplines. Some courses are concerned with formal features, some with functional uses of the language. A team teaching experiment was carried out in three different departments, in all of which lectures play an important part. Informal lectures are more difficult for overseas students [some distinguishing lexical and phonological features are discussed]. Wide variation was found between individual lecturers. Regional accent did not pose a serious problem, but fast tempo did. Three lecturing styles are identified: (a) reading, (b) conversational, and (c) rhetorical.

The team-teaching programme described here concentrated on lecture comprehension (other programmes in writing examination answers and reading comprehension were also carried out). Subject teachers are involved in the course on a rota basis; they lecture, then the language teacher checks comprehension of the lecture and vocabulary used in it, introduces techniques for note-taking and leads up to the work on writing the following term. Students' queries on the subject matter are answered by the subject teacher. Only if the two teachers work together can the interlinked problems of language and subject be dealt with effectively. [Pattern of activities is given; follow-up work on application and evaluation of information presented in lectures.]

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**83-48 Fleck, A.** (New Mexico State U.). Achieving communicative competence in the beginning classroom: some suggested conversational activities. *System* (Oxford), **10**, 1 (1982), 45-51.

This article presents several guidelines for the organisation of conversation groups and suggests a number of conversational activities intended for use in the first year of language study. Some points which are emphasised are: the importance of teacher supervision of, rather than participation in, conversational activities; advantages and justifications for not over-correcting students' grammatical errors; and the need for the creation of a relaxed, non-competitive environment in the classroom. Suggested activities include several which encourage free conversation as well as more structured exercises designed to facilitate the acquisition of certain skills.

**83-49 Friedenberg, Joan and Bradley, Curtis H.** Communication skills for the adult ESL student: a microcounselling approach. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 4 (1981), 403-11.

Microcounselling is a widely used and systematic method of developing interpersonal communication skills. By modifying this approach to include lexical, semantic, and cultural components, it can be used to teach ESL students (in this case, immigrants to the USA) to communicate effectively. Microcounselling is a form of microtraining, i.e. the development of specific, concrete skills through observation, practice and feedback in a psychologically safe learning environment. Microcounselling extends this format to develop a variety of interpersonal skills. Originally developed for a one-to-one trainer-trainee relationship, it can also be used with groups.

A microcounselling exercise consists of: introduction by the teacher (in the form of role-playing dialogues), reinforcement, developing the model, and practice. The skills involved can be grouped into: beginning skills of effective interpersonal communication (attending behaviour, open questions), selective listening skills (reflecting feeling, paraphrasing), and advanced skills (expression of content, self-disclosure). The ESL teacher selects the skills judged most important for a particular setting.

The approach can be modified to include three preliminary language and culture components covering practice in vocabulary, grammatical structures and culture training.

**83-50 Gallais-Hammonno, Janine** (U. of Metz). L'article defini dans les textes scientifiques anglo-saxons. [The definite article in scientific English texts.] *Langage et l'Homme* (Brussels), **48** (1982), 53-60.

Study of the way the definite article is used in scientific texts in English assists in the reconstruction of the author's argument. A list of every example of the definite article in an article on economics provides a researcher who has the minimum requisite scientific knowledge with an objective listing of the principal terms and concepts used in the order of their appearance while omitting terms which are not essential to the analysis in question. The researcher is thus afforded a useful overview of content and subject matter which is more reliable than a third-party summary.

**83–51 Gayle, Grace M. H.** (U. of Ottawa). Identifying second-language teaching styles: a new approach to an old problem. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **38**, 2 (1982), 254–61.

The Language Teaching Record Scheme (LTRS) is a classroom observation instrument constructed for the purpose of identifying configurations of teaching behaviour along the dimension of the pedagogical functions, which are organised within a hierarchy of three levels of detail – activities, moves and discourse functions. Four descriptive dimensions cut across specific levels of the hierarchy yielding a total of seven nominal scales. A study is described in which 19 teachers of French were observed teaching classes at various grade levels.

The data showed that some categories tend to be used much more frequently than others, e.g. the discourse functions ‘specific information’, ‘reading’, ‘complete repetition’. Cluster analysis revealed three groups of teachers, each of which emphasised different pedagogical functions: (1) general emphasis placed on the use of categories which suggest automaticity, (2) preference for the use of clues and directives, and (3) tendency to allow students a wider exposure to the language through the use of ‘reading’, ‘illustration’, etc.

**83–52 Hall, Alex** (Hamburg U.). Drama in English language teaching: two approaches at the university level in West Germany. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **3**, 2 (1982), 144–60.

This paper reviews the arguments for teaching drama as part of EFL programmes at tertiary level and reports on two contrasted approaches. German universities, unlike British, have tended to offer little in the way of drama in their foreign-language programmes, yet it offers a lively means of communication, promotes awareness of non-verbal signals and paralinguistic elements of communication, and provides for an analytic approach to character. Dramatic dialogue offers a range of intonation patterns and improves students’ command of such patterns, as they are freed from the need to concentrate on grammatical and lexical accuracy.

Twelve-week courses in creative drama (writing and acting) in Germany for first-year students at the Central Institute of Languages, Hamburg, aim to transfer their competence at the conversational level to a dramatic situation of their own choosing. They begin with a two-hour phonetics course to improve their pronunciation which incorporates dramatic techniques such as ‘rehearsals’. The two different approaches used are based on (a) creative writing and (b) textual analysis. The creative writing approach encouraged students to select an English setting, then develop their own chosen character. Writing sessions analysed how the discourse should be guided, what constituted appropriate language, etc. As there was no audience, a filmed version of the final script was made. In the textual approach, Bond’s *The Sea* was chosen with the main aim of studying and practicing intonation, pitch and stress. Some analytical discussion of the social and political background was included. Students rehearsed in groups. The final performance was filmed. The students found the language difficult, through the dialect was not attempted. Motivation for this course varied but generally improved during the course. Students in the creative drama course were more dedicated. Group cohesion for both courses was aided by a weekend seminar.



**83-53 Hammerly, Hector** (Simon Fraser U.). Contrastive phonology and error analysis. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **21** (1982), 17-32.

Results are presented of a phonetic test, carried out with 50 English-speaking university students after 45 hours of Spanish teaching. The frequency and type of fault corresponded to the predictions of contrastive analysis for a hierarchy of persistence of phonological errors. It also emerged that structuralist concepts of phoneme and allophone are useful in the prediction, description and explanation of pronunciation errors in foreign-language teaching. [Chart lists the 45 problems tested, in decreasing order of difficulty.]

Applications for the classroom are that a gradual audiolingual introduction to the foreign-language sound system with the use of a supportive transcriptional aid is recommended in order to minimise the negative effects of spelling on pronunciation.

**83-54 Harding-Esch, Edith** (U. of Cambridge). The open access sound and video library of the University of Cambridge: progress report and development. *System* (Oxford), **10**, 1 (1982), 13-28.

The open access sound and video library serves to provide university members, particularly non-specialists, with language-learning facilities (now for over 100 languages). As there was a wide variety of needs and objectives to cater for, a flexible and individualised system was needed, within a conventional language laboratory which had been turned into a multi-purpose audio and video library. The system was improved by (a) making it self-explicit to users; (b) helping users in selecting appropriate learning materials; (c) advising them on how to make use of authentic materials. A future aim is to develop a counselling service to match resources to individual needs.

**83-55 Harmer, Jeremy** (Inst. Anglo-Mexicano de Cultura, Guadalajara). What is communicative? *English Language Teaching Journal* (London), **36**, 3 (1982), 164-8.

The term 'communicative' has been used to cover a wide variety of approaches and methodological procedures. But it cannot account for both drills on the one hand and genuinely communicative activities on the other. In this article the word 'communicative' and the nature of communication are examined and a distinction is drawn between 'communicative' and 'non-communicative' activities, each of which has its place in a balanced approach to language teaching.

'Communication' implies that the speaker wants to speak and has a purpose in doing so which he/she wants to convey to the listener, who, in turn, must be ready to process the language heard (seen). Without an information gap (A has information which B does not possess) there may well be no reason to communicate. In a communicative activity the students need some communicative purpose; their attention will be focused on content not form. The teacher will not intervene nor the materials restrict the language used. An example is the 'describe and draw' game. In non-communicative activities, e.g. repetition or substitution drills, the only motivation is the need to attain accuracy, with emphasis on form, not content, and materials designed to concentrate on a particular language item.

**83–56 Mościcki, Eve K.** (John Hopkins U.) and **Tallal, Paula** (U. of California at San Diego). A phonological exploration of oral reading errors. *Applied Psycholinguistics* (Cambridge), 2, 4 (1981), 353–67.

Younger readers, mean age 6;11, and older readers, mean age 8;7, matched on IQ and SES, read 18 consonant phonemes embedded in nonsense CVCs. Results indicated that (1) within groups, younger readers made significantly more errors on digraphs than graphs; (2) younger readers made significantly more errors on graphs in the final position; (3) there was no position effect for either group in reading digraphs. Analysis of errors based on the number of distinctive features shared within stimulus-response pairs revealed that (a) on graphs, both groups made significantly more errors that shared two distinctive features; (b) on digraphs, the majority of errors for younger readers shared one distinctive feature; (c) the predominant strategy on digraphs for both groups was to read one letter. These findings demonstrate that most oral reading errors produced by beginning readers are not random, but rather are systematically related to the stimulus.

**83–57 Pride, John B.** (Victoria U., Wellington, NZ). Parents and reading: a case study in competence and prestige. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), 6, 1 (1980), 1–59.

This paper illustrates and discusses some characteristics of different styles of reading aloud to children, based on recordings of performances of New Zealand parents reading the same text to their own children in their own homes. Serious grammatical and lexical misreadings are analysed in detail; descriptions are given of prosodic and paralinguistic characteristics of readings by 12 parents, of the same 15-line passage; and other features are discussed. There is also an account of reactions obtained from 46 New Zealand undergraduates to extracts from the readings. One or more short extracts of each parent's reading were copied on to the same blank tape; this was later listened to by the students, who were asked to assess the performance of the reader heard in each single extract. Two assessments were required: (1) 'Imagine you are married, with one child aged six years. In the event that you and your husband/wife had to go away for six months, leaving your child here in New Zealand, how happy would you be about this person reading to your child over this whole period? Assume your child is of the same sex as the reader'. (2) 'Very briefly, on what do you base your answer to the first question'? Using a 'matched-guise' technique, it was possible to compare assessments of the same readers reading with and without serious grammatical errors. It was found that the students strongly preferred British English voices over New Zealand ('Kiwi') voices, even in those instances when only the former committed serious errors in reading.

**83–58 Ramirez, Arnulfo G. (Stanford U.) and Stromquist, Nelly P. (RMC Research Corp.).** ESL methodology and student language learning in bilingual elementary schools. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 13, 2 (1979) [publ. 1982], 145–58.

The effect of ESL teaching techniques on student learning was investigated. A group of 18 ESL teachers and their classes were observed across four lessons with similar content. Students were pre- and post-tested over a six-month period by two measures of language performance: oral comprehension and production. Teaching behaviours such as asking guided questions, correcting grammatical structures, explaining new vocabulary, and teacher's knowledge of linguistics were found to influence student growth positively, while a rapid pace and an exaggerated use of modelling were found to have negative effects. The effects of these teaching behaviours held for student growth measured in terms of either oral comprehension or production. Regression analysis of selected teaching behaviours accounted for two-thirds of the explained variance in student learning.

**83–59 Riley, Philip (CRAPEL, U. of Nancy).** Viewing comprehension: 'l'oeil écoute'. *ELT Documents Special* (London), 1981, 143–56.

The paper considers how video equipment can be used for the teaching of comprehension, and offers an analytic grid to help teachers make better use of the medium. In face-to-face interaction there are many non-verbal, extra-linguistic sources of information and meaning which are not merely a gloss on the verbal component, but play an integrated and cumulative role. An analysis of the communicative functions of these visually perceived aspects of interaction covers (1) the deictic function ('pointing at' objects); the learner should be exposed to discourse which shows rather than tells. (2) The interactional function; in the foreign-language classroom there are frequent misunderstandings about address behaviours by both teachers and learners, which can be helped by class analysis of television recordings of group discussions. (3) The modal function (signalling commitment to the literal meaning – serious, joking, or enthusiastic) – learners often make wrong judgements. (4) The indexical function (actor-related); 'small-talk' provides a vehicle for exchanging indexical information. (5) The linguistic function – some non-verbal behaviours can be semantically precise: (a) emblems, (b) illustrators, (c) enactions, (d) batons. (6) The situational function (the spatio-temporal setting in so far as it impinges on communicative behaviour) – perception of setting and situation varies from culture to culture. The observation and discussion of authentic video material is a valuable preparation for the situations in which a learner may one day find himself.

**83–60 Rixon, Shelagh (British Council, London).** The design of materials to foster particular learning strategies. *ELT Documents Special* (London), 1981, 68–106.

The aim is to help students cope with a realistic listening task that is beyond their level if language skills alone are taken into account – how to survive on a minimum

of language skill. In the Council's English courses for overseas adult students, an 'assault course' of materials trains them in strategies to help them get as much information as possible out of what they hear. An efficient listener (*a*) sorts out why he is listening, then (*b*) predicts something of what he expects to hear, and (*c*) assesses how much of the information he expects to be new to him and what he knows about the subject, which reduces some of his listening to a monitoring task, and (*d*) decides how much of the message is likely to be relevant to his purpose (what to ignore and what to select). The aim is to make the interaction between the student's linguistic competence and his knowledge (of the world and of specialised fact) much stronger than it already is, by means of a transition from individual grappling with the task to group discussion. The listener filters the message for its relevance, but must first deal with the content he is doubtful about. He can be trained to increase his flexibility by applying several strategies simultaneously: remaining alert for any re-wording, guessing, referring outside (i.e. to a dictionary), or (finally) giving up. The final stage is the organisation of the information in order to achieve the listening objective [worksheets provided offer guidelines].

The assumption behind the design and exploitation of materials is that it is not necessary to simulate reality precisely. Feedback on correctness should be almost (not entirely) immediate: the aim is progressive resolution of uncertainty, and encouraging self-criticism and self-reliance. Most of the texts are 'simulated authentic': information is provided but no script. [Selection of listening exercises, transcripts and worksheets.]

**83–61 Schulz, Reinhard.** Lesen/Verstehen: Ausbildung von Arbeits-, Übungs- und Interpretationstechniken im schülerbezogenen Fremdsprachenunterricht der 9. und 10. Klassen. [Reading comprehension: development of working procedures, practice exercises and interpretation techniques for pupil-centred foreign language teaching in the ninth and tenth classes.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), 34, 4 (1981), 195–205.

Reading is a complex process; comprehension is not localised neurologically but is an abstract activity of establishing relationships with what we already know, occurring at the level of words, context, situation and interpretation. Pupils in the ninth and tenth classes (aged 15 and 16), after four years of foreign-language study differ in proficiency, but they can be expected to understand the main issue, fact, event or emotion in a text [details]. Texts range from the specially constructed to the fully authentic. Reading can be prepared or unprepared, aim at gist or details. Pupils may be asked to pick out facts, distinguish sequence of events, correct false statements, draw conclusions, identify feelings, discover the author's intentions, comment on words or style [examples]. All work on texts should lead to productive tasks; these will progress from closely guided to completely free [examples]. It helps to provide pupils with words and phrases to express opinions, e.g. agreement or disagreement, opening or concluding remarks.

**83–62 Searfoss, Lyndon W.** (Arizona State U.) and others. An integrated language strategy for second-language learners. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **15**, 4 (1981), 383–9.

Second-language learners face two simultaneous problems in content area classrooms: (1) acquiring general communicative facility, and (2) acquiring the specialised concepts and vocabulary found in content area subjects. The adapted Guided Writing Procedure (GWP) is suited to both the cognitive and linguistic needs of these learners because it capitalises on the rich social, linguistic, and cognitive environment of the content area classroom. The GWP provides instruction and practice in basic communication skills by using oral language as a bridge to reading and writing. It activates students' prior knowledge to furnish a framework for the acquisition of new concepts. Most importantly, the GWP and its step-by-step sequence offer second-language learners an opportunity for meaningful practice of the target language as part of the learning of content area concepts.

**83–63 Swaffer, Janet King** (U. of Texas, Austin). Reading in the foreign language classroom: focus on process. *Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, Pa), **14**, 2 (1981), 176–94.

Techniques are presented which adults can use to aid comprehension of a text; it is assumed that reading comprehension is a function of active analytical restructuring of information by the reader rather than passive registration. Focusing on detail with *wh-* questions may actually interrupt the reader's efforts to put details of the text into a meaningful whole; only *why* questions call for the reader's interpretation. Reading needs to be taught as part of the total language learning process, not as a separate skill. To focus on the larger message of a text, the approach stresses inference and analysis in conjunction with recognition and recall. The two main types of exercises suggested are (1) semantic categorisation and (2) syntactic categorisation. The semantic categorisation exercise serves to connect authorial sympathies and imagery to the focal figures of the text. The syntactic characterisation exercise helps the reader to group verb tenses, thus revealing that the grammatical structure of the text is integral to its meaning structure. A communicative context gives meaning to structures and vocabulary functions before isolated words and syntactic patterns can be meaningful. Adult readers (over 14) bring to any foreign-language text a wealth of background knowledge and experience to help them in the primary task: the formulation of a reading hypothesis.

Tasks which enable reading for meaning (*a*) preview – help students create a reading hypothesis based on preliminary identification of text type and subject matter, (*b*) organise – establish a focus intrinsic to the text and (*c*) weight – trace linguistic and semantic patterns. The teacher's role throughout is relatively non-directive and non-prescriptive.

**83–64 Swain, Merrill** (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Bilingual education for majority and minority language children. *Studia Linguistica* (Lund, Sweden), **35**, 1/2 (1981), 15–32.

The fact that initial education in a second language has led to bilingualism and academic success for some children, should not be used as an argument against providing mother-tongue education for those children whose first language is not the same as that used in the schools. The sequencing of the languages of instruction is important in the development of bilingual proficiency. Canadian French immersion programmes began as a result of parental pressure by English-speaking parents in Quebec, i.e. pressure by the dominant majority culture. For such a group, learning a second language poses no threat to personal and cultural identity, nor to maintenance of the mother tongue, which is an integral part of the programme, though not usually introduced until the third or fourth year of schooling. English is used in out-of-class activities, and the children may use English in class. The teacher accepts and starts from the children's existing language and interests, thus providing a supportive environment.

'Immersion' elsewhere has been used to mean English-only education for minority children, who are frequently mixed with native speakers, and thus begin their education on an unequal footing, a situation better described as 'submersion'. Instruction in the minority children's mother tongue is essential. Cummins' model of linguistic proficiency incorporates two dimensions, one reflecting the degree of cognitive involvement necessary for producing or understanding language, the other reflecting the range of contextual cues available for using and interpreting language. He argues that language ability at the context-reduced end of the continuum is cross-lingual, i.e. spending time learning in the language one knows best benefits both languages equally. This explains why older learners acquire skills at the context-reduced end of the curriculum more rapidly than younger learners.

For children of a dominant, majority culture, second-language education should not be delayed. But if second-language learning is begun early for minority-language speakers, neither motivational or ethnocentric tendencies will necessarily prevent the loss of the first language. Different formats of bilingual education should be offered by schools to provide for the optimal linguistic and academic development of children.

**83–65 Swain, Merrill** (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Linguistic expectations: core, extended and immersion programmes. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **37**, 3 (1981), 486–97.

It is important to be realistic about what second-language programmes can achieve. Through a process of establishing goals and relating these to the best outcomes of programme, it will be possible to set realistically high expectations. Although accumulated hours of second-language instruction and proficiency in that language tend to be positively related, other factors such as the intensity of the second-language programmes, the teachers, the methodologies adopted, and the age of the learner play a crucial role in affecting this relationship. The fact that older learners tend to be more efficient learners in some aspects of second-language learning, however, should not

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blind politicians and administrators in their decision about when to start teaching a second language. There may be a number of advantages associated with starting earlier in an intensive programme, including the very realistic expectation of a positive effect on first language and cognitive development. There is no reason to lower one's expectations of the linguistic and academic performance of certain groups of children (e.g. children with learning disabilities, below average IQ) in second-language programmes.

**83–66 Taylor, Barry P.** In search of real reality. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 29–42.

This paper presents a rationale for basing ESL instruction on the notions of reality and authenticity. It focuses on four major points: first, it discusses the inadequacy of grammatically-based approaches in teaching appropriate language use. Second, it considers the notional functional syllabus and proposes that in general, highly structured language teaching, either grammatically- or functionally-based, fails to meet students' needs. Third, it examines some of research which has been undertaken to investigate the claim that realistic linguistic input derived from communicatively real verbal interaction may be more effective than grammatically or functionally-based teaching. Support is found in research related to the input hypothesis, the monitor model, and the nature of simple codes. Fourth, it suggests that real communication involving simple codes is most likely to occur when both speaker and hearer are involved and, particularly, when the learner has a stake in the outcome of the communication. It hypothesises that under these circumstances increased proficiency results. Proposals are made for a classroom teaching approach that focuses on real communication [list of ten benefits for students].

**83–67 van Parreren, C. F. and Schouten-van Parreren, M. C.** (Utrecht State U. and Free U. of Amsterdam). Contextual guessing: a trainable reader strategy. *System* (Oxford), **9**, 3 (1981), 235–41.

Like reading in general, the subskills of intensive and cursory reading cannot be trained effectively without training more elementary skills, which form a hierarchy, like building blocks. Contextual guessing is the most specific skill for foreign-language reading because of the frequency with which the reader meets unknown words. An investigation is reported in which a varied series of qualitative experiments was carried out, all of which required subjects to try to guess the meaning of unknown words (in foreign-language texts) or to fill in blanks (in mother-tongue texts). At the same time they had to verbalise their thought processes, which were tape recorded. The thinking aloud protocols were subjected to an error analysis and then (in some of the experiments) to an analysis of 'expert behaviour'. The latter analysis was made by contrasting successful and unsuccessful actions of different subjects with respect to the same unknown words or blanks.

The protocol analyses showed that subjects could act on different linguistic levels – syntactic, semantic, lexical or stylistic – and that there was a hierarchy of levels, from syntactic up to stylistic [discussion of errors in each group]. General errors

may appear on each level, usually when a hypothesis is produced prematurely or is not tested sufficiently. In the analysis of expert behaviour, it emerged that the skilled guesser estimates how many difficulties would be presented by guessing a certain word and then entering on the apparently most appropriate level (rather than, as expected, moving through the levels in a fixed order, from syntactic upwards).

Implications for training are that there is a need for basic knowledge, such as ability in grammatical analysis and parsing, familiarity with the common syntactical patterns of the target language, and some knowledge of word formation; the pupil should be made aware of the four levels on which he can act and how to estimate on which to enter. The cloze procedure is probably less useful for training the guessing skill than confronting pupils directly with full texts.

**83–68 Walmsley, John B.** (U. of Bielefeld, FRG). *Teacher Value Systems. TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 79–89.

Researchers in the foreign-language classroom are frequently confronted by the phenomenon of students producing almost completely nonsensical utterances. Such utterances are not accidental, but are, in fact, the product of conditioning by the teacher. This conditioning, in turn, is guided by the values which the teacher explicitly or implicitly holds. The concept of the Teacher Value System was developed to reveal these values and thereby account for observed patterns of teacher-student behaviour. In addition to proposing a rational explanation for a set of otherwise apparently irrational phenomena, the concept also affords insights into some essential prerequisites for genuinely communicative teaching.