

Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

84–153 **Bautier-Castaing, Elisabeth** (U. of Paris III). L'authentique des-authentifié: la situation scolaire de productions langagières. [The authentic made unauthentic – language production in the classroom.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **48** (1982), 80–90.

The meaning of discourse resides not only in what is said but also in what is intended, not in the parts but in the whole, not merely in the discourse itself but also in the interactions between the speakers. Yet learners are expected to acquire complex communicative skills in the artificial, unnatural and unauthentic classroom situation. However, the school can play a positive role: simplification is recognised as assisting learning; as much variety of language and situation as possible should be introduced into the classroom; description, explanation and discussion of the complexity of language and communication can play a role in its acquisition. It should not be forgotten that communication is a process, not a product.

84–154 **Bourguignon, Christiane and Dabène, Louise** (Centre de didactique des langues, Grenoble). Le métalangage: un point de rencontre obligé entre enseignants de langue maternelle et de langue étrangère. [Metalanguage – meeting ground for mother-tongue and foreign-language teachers.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **177** (1983), 45–9.

There has been a tendency to exclude consideration of the mother tongue from foreign-language teaching for fear of 'interference'. For the mother-tongue teacher, grammar is all too often a matter of classification and identification, divorced from the development of the pupil's expressive capacity; while for the foreign-language teacher, the function of grammar is to assist the expressive capacity. Yet tests have shown that pupils who have been led to reflect on the way their mother tongue is structured perform better at learning a foreign-language than those who have not.

84–155 **Chodkiewicz, Halina**. Skill acquisition in a foreign language: instructional components. *Glottodidactica* (Poznań, Poland), **15** (1982), 63–74.

Instructional design is a prescriptive science which could help the teacher and researcher by providing a schema. Glaser's model is used to provide a framework which should comprise four main components: (1) description and analysis of competent performance; (2) description and diagnosis of initial state; (3) conditions that foster learning and acquisition of competence; (4) effects of instructional implementations in the short and long run.

In defining (1), skilled language behaviour, many researchers have distinguished between skill and ability in various ways. What seems certain is that all the acts of language performance constitute a hierarchy of subtasks, spatially and temporally

integrated. Models of language performance must consider temporal organisation of input, which works through four stages: rapid attentional integrations, buffer delays, short-term memory, and longer temporal integrations. Attention can be controlled and influenced by instructional procedures. Integration of the hierarchical structure of skills is facilitated by the regulating power of longer temporal integrations or 'schemata'. These are stereotypes which evolve in the central nervous system with recurring experiences; once automatised, they affect the process of remembering. Their emergence necessitates a considerable degree of automation of lower-level subtasks. The role of feedback, another component of skilled performance, is to provide knowledge, motivation and reinforcement. It can be intrinsic (in the learner's reactions). The ability to predict (anticipation) is another element of skilled behaviour.

(2) The initial state of the learner includes his mastery of his native language – he is not learning a language for the first time, but is acquiring a new means of expression. (3) Conditions fostering learning include effects of reinforcement, conditions of practice, interference with memory and the nature of attention and observational learning. Repetition is not a sufficient condition for progress in skill acquisition. Skill-getting and skill-using should not be separated. Practice in the parts yields better results in the training of skills whose parts are relatively independent, whereas complex behaviour, like language, demands whole-task practice. (4) Effects of instructional implementation is an area where much more research is needed to analyse the effects of various teaching procedures.

84–156 De Glopper, Kees and Rijlaarsdam, Gert. *Taalbeschouwing als alternatief voor traditioneel grammatica-onderwijs?* [Language study as an alternative to traditional grammar instruction?] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **379** (1983), 93–103.

Recent official documents in the Netherlands have discussed the view that the general study of language might replace traditional grammar lessons. This article discusses one such document produced in 1978, which puts a number of arguments both for and against traditional grammar. It suggested that traditional grammar might help language skills in both the mother-tongue and a foreign-language, and that it might also help spelling. It also argued, on the other hand, that traditional grammar gives an undesirable view of language, that it is too difficult for younger pupils, and that it deprives children of the pleasure of using language creatively. This article attacks all these claims, arguing that most of them are unsupported by any research, and criticises the suggestions put forward on how language study might be taught, and what sort of curriculum might be adopted for teaching language awareness.

84–157 Dimitrijević, Naum (U. of Belgrade). A reassessment of the current approach to foreign-language teaching with a special reference to the latest research in neurolinguistics. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), **2** (1982), 137–47.

Several broad approaches to foreign-language teaching can be distinguished: literary, methodological, linguistic, and socio-psychological. All are unidisciplinary, whereas the subject is so complex that only a multi-disciplinary approach, which tries to integrate the results from various disciplines, can be adequate. The difficulty of

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constructing such an approach is inhibiting: a vast amount of information needs to be synthesised, and the approach once formulated needs to be tested on a large scale. Few books on language teaching pay any attention to the notion of a basic approach. Neurolinguistics, in particular, has much to offer, with regard to work on cognitive style, bilingualism, lateralisation, etc.

84–158 Lyons, John. The Twentyman lecture: Modern languages and modern linguistics. *Modern Languages* (London), **64**, 2 (1983), 87–94.

Linguistics is, or aims to be, scientific, and it is also eminently humane. It can help to transcend the traditional boundary between science and the humanities. The term ‘modern languages’ refers to a peculiarly restricted and contingent group of languages, and this is part of the crisis in modern-language teaching. ‘Modern languages’ is traditionally primarily concerned with the language of literature, but there need not be any conflict between this and the practical study of languages in conjunction with history, philosophy and the social sciences. Linguistics can play a role in the investigation and maintenance of European culture and civilisation. There need not be any opposition between linguistics and the study of literature. Linguistics can provide assistance to literary studies by setting them within a theory of utterance, just as literary studies can help linguistics by concentrating upon intrinsically worthy products of utterance.

Standards of competence in languages might be raised if students in tertiary education combined the study of one or more modern languages with linguistics. Such students would be better qualified to teach language courses and to take up any job involving the analysis or computational processing of language. The general educational value of the study of linguistics lies partly in its humane relevance and links with stylistics and literary criticism and partly in the multiplicity of its connections with other academic disciplines, such as philosophy, psychology, anthropology and sociology. It is ideally placed to bridge the gap between the arts and sciences.

84–159 Motina, E. I. and others (Moscow). Описание языка и принцип активной коммуникативности в обучении. [Language description and the active communicative principle in teaching.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **1** (1983), 68–72.

A communicative view of language – one where linguistic elements are looked at from the point of view of their function in communication – is the most appropriate basis for the teaching of spoken language. Such a view is based on the study of texts, which both reflect the real world and have their own internal principles of organisation; among the latter, two are noted – ‘contamination’, or the ways in which successive sentences in a text are based on the information contained in previous sentences, and ‘compression’, the removal of redundant information.

Some examples are given of the sorts of analysis which might be carried out along these lines, either with reference to specific grammatical categories (predicative adjectives, passive voice, etc.) or with reference to general semantic properties (ways of expressing properties of objects, etc.)

84-160 Neumeister, Hermann. *Vivre le multilinguisme européen. Across the threshold towards multilingual Europe. Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), **36**, 2 (1983), 67–75.

The title is that of a conference organised in Strasbourg in 1982 by the Council for Cultural Co-operation (CCC) of the Council of Europe, to report on the results of the projects undertaken by the Council of Europe between 1971 and 1981 to promote modern-language teaching and to lay the foundations for further work in this field. The principles of the Council of Europe's work in this area were discussed as a prelude to intensive discussion of the following themes: language teaching in schools; language learning among migrant workers and their families; language learning at tertiary level, in further education in general, in adult education, and the use of multi-media language programmes; initial and further training of teachers.

There was a pooling of ideas, opinions and recommendations. General support was found for the principles of language teaching underlying *Project 4*, a programme of language teaching systems development based on the communicative approach and begun by the CCC in 1978. *Project 4* involved: the further development of the Threshold Level for the learning of languages other than English; the development of a media language-learning system; the promotion of opportunities to study projects being undertaken in individual countries; language instruction for migrant workers and their dependants; fundamental research into language teaching [detailed discussion].

84-161 Roulet Eddy (U. of Geneva). *Langue maternelle et langues étrangères: vers une pédagogie globale. [Teaching mother tongue and foreign languages: an integrative approach.] Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **177** (1983), 23–6.

Schoolchildren are often faced with having to learn two foreign languages simultaneously while still consolidating their knowledge of their mother tongue, and have to cope with widely divergent concepts of language teaching. Yet research has shown that acquisition of the structures of a foreign language is facilitated where learners have previously been prepared for receptivity to the new system by awareness exercises in their mother tongue. Children and adolescents possess a latent capacity for comprehending how language operates which should be exploited, initially in the mother tongue. Communicative competence is a valid objective for mother-tongue teaching, as well as for foreign-language teaching. Language teaching can be integrated if learners acquire the necessary skills and attitudes in the mother-tongue class.

84-162 Stern, H. H. (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education). *Le concept de l'authenticité dans l'enseignement des langues vivantes: tentative de synthèse. [The concept of authenticity in the teaching of foreign languages: towards a synthesis.] Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal), **4**, 2 (1982), 83–97.

It is important to distinguish between two aspects of 'authenticity': that of content (authenticity I) and that of learning (authenticity II). The former refers to language in opposition to 'wrong, inappropriate' and also to culture, as in texts drawn from

real life. The latter refers to the involvement of the learner: on the one hand to his attitude to the country and people using the target language and on the other to the extent to which real communication occurs in the classroom. Both aspects of authenticity can be integrated into a foreign-language syllabus that has four elements: (1) a linguistic element; (2) a cultural element, in the anthropological sense, with authenticity an essential criterion for both; (3) an element of communicative activities, i.e. topics of direct appeal to the learner, where the language becomes authentic inasmuch as it communicates valuable information (school journey and exchanges belong here, but also films, etc., and personal contacts with the teacher and other pupils); (4) an element of general integration, i.e. of general linguistic education in which the pupil is called on to reflect on the nature of language and language learning and thus becomes more aware of himself as language learner.

84–163 Trim, J. L. M. (CILT, London). Considerations in the formation of a language policy: a European perspective. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics* (Wollongong, NSW), 5, 2 (1982), 1–12.

The situations in Europe and in Australia have more in common than might be expected: for instance, the impact on Australia and its major cities of large-scale immigration can be paralleled by Sweden and Paris. However, Europe is linguistically extremely diverse. The three major language families, Germanic, Romance and Slavonic, have been fragmented into a large number of mutually unintelligible dialects. In modern times languages have become more unified and distinct; the learning of a second major language offers entry into a larger language community than was previously the case. There has been a continuous history of oppression of dialects as part of a policy of centralisation; in Britain the non-regional Received Pronunciation became a mark of social prestige. In some other European countries, centralism has been more recent or less successful (viz. Germany and Italy, Norway, the Netherlands, Spain, Ireland). Other languages have maintained themselves within major nation states (e.g. Welsh, Basque). Frontier changes or annexations have left isolated enclaves of speakers, as in Alsace. There are multilingual states like Switzerland, where communities display a 'co-existent monolingualism' rather than bilingualism, and Belgium, where the relations between separate linguistic communities are very tense, as they are in Cyprus, much less so in Finland.

The scale of migration in Europe since the war has been huge. In the advanced industrialised countries of central, western and northern Europe, there are roughly 16 million migrant workers and dependants. When it began, it was expected to be temporary, but the majority stayed on in the host countries with their families. Children born to the migrants tend to attach themselves to the host community, which may produce *anomie*, i.e. alienation simultaneously from both communities, with its attendant stresses. Australia shares these problems. It is probably mistaken to assume that they are transitional. Experience with immigrants in Britain has shown that Indian culture is highly distinct and offers a valued alternative to British culture, whereas European migrants (e.g. Italians) tend to assimilate.

The lingua-franca function of English is causing it to predominate in the educational

systems of all European countries, but many Europeans favour diversification. For historical and administrative reasons, French is taught to over 90% of pupils in the United Kingdom. In the free market of adult education there is a more balanced demand for French and German.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

84-164 Bley-Vroman, Robert (U. of Texas at Austin). The comparative fallacy in interlanguage studies: the case of systematicity. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 1 (1983), 1-17.

Studies of second language acquisition often employ analytical concepts defined relative to the target language (such as obligatory context, error, etc.). It is demonstrated here that this practice can be a serious obstacle to the investigation of crucial questions about the nature of learners' languages. The difficulties caused by this practice, called here the 'comparative fallacy', are illustrated in an investigation of the framework proposed by Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker (1976) to study the issue of interlanguage systematicity and variability. Their framework is shown to result in incorrect or unrevealing analyses of systematicity and to obscure the character of the interlanguage. These defects are shown to be the results of the comparative fallacy.

84-165 Germain, Claude (U. of Montreal). Langue maternelle et langue seconde: le concept d'obstacle pédagogique. [Mother tongue acquisition and teaching as obstacles to second-language learning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **177** (1983), 27-30.

The way the mother tongue is taught in schools often inculcates false notions and expectations concerning language which constitute an obstacle to the acquisition of a second language. Similar preconceived ideas create difficulties in teaching reading and writing of the mother tongue and also in scientific subjects where false concepts of weight, motion, velocity, etc. may first have to be corrected. Language, however, is unique in that it is both what is learnt and the means of learning it.

Obstacles of another order arise from the nature of second-language learning itself. The child's first acquisition of language is contemporaneous with the discovery of the world and the cognitive and perceptual development of the individual. Mastery of the phonological system of the language is achieved by screening out sounds extraneous to it. A system of automatic inhibitions is established which block the acquisition of another distinct way of organising reality and which require to be temporarily revised if the new language is to be learnt.

If, however, the specific nature of each is recognised, it is both possible and desirable to integrate mother-tongue and second-language teaching.

84-166 Mleczak, Jerzy (Adam Mickiewicz U., Poznań). The concept of learning difficulty: or survey of approaches. *Glottodidactia* (Poznań), **15** (1982), 5-24.

In the past, learning difficulties were thought to be caused solely by interlingual differences. Now it is believed that difficulty is a reflection of many higher mental processes underlying the acquisition, organisation and use of linguistic knowledge. To behaviourists, difficulty was a matter of reinforcement stimuli resulting in 'over-learning'. Contrastive analysis sees learning difficulty as a function of the degree and type of interlingual similarity relations: this kind of interpretation views language as a kind of algorithm and reduces the learner's role to that of a recipient of a change in his own language behaviour.

Subsumption theory sees difficulty as a function of cognitive complexity. During cognitive learning, new material is subsumed under a more inclusive network of categories and inter-relationships among them, the key element in the framework being the factor of relatability. This theory has provided a strong theoretical basis for rejecting structural contrast as the sole source of difficulty. The psycholinguistic view of difficulty, originally mainly linguistic, came to include semantic and pragmatic concerns. Five interpretations of difficulty as a function of formal complexity are reviewed: some of the research has practical applications for the grading of teaching materials.

Interlanguage research has paid considerable attention to the concept of difficulty, which is seen as only one of many variables in the process of language learning. Research on invariant order of acquisition has concentrated on discovering a uniform pattern of learning languages and identifying learning strategies as well as on finding evidence for the creative construction hypothesis. It is premature to apply these findings to foreign-language methodology. The claim about the universal character of learning is still largely unsubstantiated. Difficulty prediction is at best highly controversial; it is usually interpreted according to one's understanding of transfer. The strategy of avoidance or paraphrase is thought to be one of the signs that the learner is experiencing difficulty.

As far as the concept of difficulty is concerned, the most important difference between orthodox contrastive analysis and contemporary research on learning strategies is that, in the case of the former, prediction of difficulty represents a psychologically faulty reconstruction of learning processes based on an empirically established order of interlingual differences, while in the latter approach it is the learner who is acknowledged to be making a substantial amount of prediction by means of referring to his own perceptual and cognitive strategies.

84-167 Scherfer, Peter. Zur Erforschung von Sprachlehr- und -lernprozessen auf Gegenseitigkeit. [Investigating a reciprocal approach to second-language teaching and learning.] *LILI: Zeitschrift für Literaturwissenschaft und Linguistik* (Göttingen, FRG), **12**, 45 (1982), 72-99.

In reciprocal second-language teaching and learning the two participants act in turn as partner or native speaker of the language and as learner. These situations provide opportunities to study their communication strategies and behaviour towards each

other. Simplification is evident: in language structure at all levels (e.g. phonologically by slower delivery and stress on non-segmental features), in content (e.g. through avoidance of some topics or more superficial treatment); by repetition and recourse to gesture and body language. Some evidence is given for a project whereby French and German adolescents with limited proficiency in each other's language were observed in controlled role-play. Greater correctness of pronunciation and grammar was exercised with the foreign partner than with other native speakers. Speed of delivery was normal at first and only slowed down in face of incomprehension. Grammatical simplification paralleled that noted in the literature on immigrant workers: lexis was explained by reference to a third language, reformulation, the use of synonyms and opposites and general rather than specific terms; the partner prompted, corrected and used gesture. Communication was easier in concrete situations than when intentions were expressed or generalisations made. The analysis of bilingual encounters suggests that learners need to be given confidence in their natural communication strategies, trained in how to make them effective and reassured about probable difficulties. [A brief appendix gives examples of the role-play situations in the Franco-German encounter.]

84–168 **Sharwood Smith, M. A.** (U. of Utrecht). Language transfer: the state of the art. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), 2 (1982), 27–38.

'Language transfer' means the carrying over of patterns from a previously learned language (usually but not necessarily the mother tongue) during performance in another language. Negative transfer is called 'interference', positive transfer 'facilitation'. Behaviourist theories use the word 'habit' in their definition of transfer; cognitive theories refer to 'knowledge'. The controversy surrounding transfer in the field of second-language acquisition centres on two issues: (1) Where can language transfer be established as having definitely occurred? (2) What is its theoretical status? The contrastive analysis approach suggested basing teaching strategies on prior contrastive analysis of the learner's mother tongue and target languages to identify similarities and differences, hence possible obstacles to learning. Error analysis, however, showed that only half the written errors made by learners could be ascribed to the L1. Examining a learner's production of errors in order to make inferences about the process in his mind which led to that product does not provide incontrovertible evidence. Yet there is a great deal of evidence for some kind of transfer in many situations with many kinds of learners; in many cases, non-transfer interpretations are also possible. Two different ways in which one linguistic system might influence another in the mind of a learner involve (a) the underlying knowledge or 'competence', and (b) the set of performance mechanisms which activate the underlying competence.

Research either implicitly or explicitly focused on competence transfer may be termed studies into cross-linguistic influence [brief review of approaches]. A more sophisticated framework is needed to understand this phenomenon, and to locate it either in the learner's underlying beliefs about the L2 or in his fluent command of the language. Teachers should see transfer not simply as interference but as 'bridging knowledge' which may be essential for further development.

84-169 Toury, Gideon (Tel Aviv U.). Transfer as a universal of verbal performance of L2 learners in situations of communication in translated utterances. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), 2 (1982), 63-78.

There are factors of the communicative situation that trigger off or block the transfer mechanism in normal bilinguals. Among these factors are the actual instruments used by researchers to investigate interference in bilinguals, and those which rely on translation reveal a higher incidence of interference than those which do not. There is something in the nature of translation itself that encourages the emergence of interference forms by realising the potential language contact in the speaker's brain and triggering off the transfer mechanism. Hence these forms reflect the activity of a psycholinguistic universal rather than a strategy devised to overcome specific communication problems. The communicative category of 'communication in translated utterances' is identified, which leads to a definition of translation and interference in functional/communicative terms. A diagram of the process and a list of factors affecting the student instructed to 'translate' are considered.

The learner-translator's performance represents only his competence in translated utterances, not in L2 as a whole. Translation represents one type of communicative utterance. It should therefore not be abandoned as a technique for testing, practising or eliciting language; however, conclusions should not be drawn that apply to L2 as a whole.

84-170 Trosborg, Anna (U. of Aarhus). Communication strategies: relating theory and practice. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), 2 (1982), 111-36.

Research into communication strategies so far has laid too much emphasis on the part played by the learner in any exchange, and not enough on the part of the interlocutor. Most studies derive from elicited speech which is not genuine communication. Yet to assess the communicative effect of a learner's utterances, they must be placed in an interactional perspective with less predictable discourse structures.

The research method suggested here enables the researcher to examine both the input to the learner, his performance, and the response to what he says. Communication strategies are defined and shown to be not mutual between interlocutors but proceeding from each speaker; nevertheless, their independent strategies contribute to the solution of a communication problem. The experiment subsequently described reveals the importance of such joint interaction to negotiate an agreement of meaning. Natural conversations in English and Danish between native speakers and learners of these languages were videotaped. Disruption was most frequently caused by lack of vocabulary and was repaired by the strategies of repetition and 'appealing'. Many strategies hitherto thought peculiar to L2 interlanguages were also used by the native speaker. Two broad types of strategy are identified, 'achievement' and 'reduction', and typological tables reproduced. However, it is shown that the native speaker interlocutor has a crucial contribution to make to the success of the interaction.

84–171 Wode, Henning (U. of Kiel). Some theoretical implications of L2 acquisition research. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), **2** (1982), 1–24.

On the basis of empirical data from the mistakes made when young children acquire the negation systems of German and English, both as mother tongues and as foreign languages, it is shown that there is remarkable similarity across languages and that whatever variants occur, do so within constraints universal to human language and therefore traceable to the processing mechanisms of the human brain. Language acquisition is the result of linguo-cognition, a language-specific type of cognition related to but distinct from general human cognition. Language typology, transfer and change (both diachronic and synchronic) are attributed to the same factors, and their workings can be seen not only in child L1 development but in adult foreign-language learning (cf. pidgins and creoles as special cases).

This being so, the learnability assumption cannot be restricted to a particular group, e.g. the young, or adolescents, but must be related to the language-learning capacity of people in general without arbitrary age restrictions. Children do not recapitulate the history of the language in acquiring L1, and the stages they go through are too consistent to be accounted for by the countless variables of ability and environment that would affect individual cases. Far from being the main agents of language change, children, like adults, are subject to the same universals that constrain both learning and change, one example of which is 'markedness'.

The brain has a single mechanism for learning languages with two vital properties: flexibility to handle the varied aspects of the learning setting and persistence throughout life. As a result, different learners resolve the clashes posed by contrastive analysis in much the same way; therefore contrastive analysis cannot explain how languages are learnt. Psycholinguistics, with due regard for the universal constraints so far identified, may indicate to the language teacher how such clashes are resolved and hence illuminate the learning process.

84–172 Zawadzka, Elżbieta. Ausgewählte psycholinguistische Faktoren des fremdsprachigen Hörverstehens und ihre Auswirkung auf die didaktische Praxis. [Selected psycholinguistic factors in the aural comprehension of foreign languages and their effect on practical teaching]. *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), **20**, 1 (1983), 14–19.

Foreign-language teaching has for long been hampered by the lack of a soundly based theory of aural comprehension and speech perception. Three current fallacies are considered in the light of recent research: (a) that hearing and speaking can be differentiated as being respectively passive and active; (b) that they can be regarded as the same process, only going in opposite directions; (c) that strategies and habits for aural comprehension are the same in the foreign language as in the mother tongue.

With regard to (a), research shows that, far from being passive, hearing is an active process and acts as a monitor on speaking. As for (b), hearing and speaking are quite different, readiness for each comes at different times and they are even differently located in the brain. The study of (c) takes into consideration such factors as anticipation, reflection time, inner speech and phonemic and phonological discrim-

ination; on all counts, differences between mother tongue and foreign language are demonstrated. Hence this relatively autonomous activity demands practice systems and a place in methodology.

RESEARCH METHODS

84-173 Davis, Lawrence M. The elicitation of contextual styles in language: a reassessment. *Journal of English Linguistics* (Bellingham, Washington), **16** (1983), 18-26.

Data from a study of Hebrew suggest that, instead of eliciting increasingly formal speech styles (as posited by Labov), the reading of short passages, word lists and minimal pairs actually demands different linguistic behaviour from informants than most linguists have ordinarily assumed. Labov's informants in his New York City study exhibited fewer stigmatised forms as they progressed from free conversation to reading passages to word lists and to minimal pairs. The Hebrew informants in the study discussed here, however, recorded more stigmatised forms, possible because they were responding to the spellings of the words rather than to the formality of the situation, and it is the non-standard forms, the pharyngeals, which are represented in the spelling system of Hebrew. It may be that what some American sociologists have been studying is the effect of spelling on linguistic behaviour.

84-174 Edelsky, Carole (Arizona State U.) and others. Semilingualism and language deficit. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **4**, 1 (1983), 1-22.

The theories of Swain and Cummins about bilingual education are well intentioned, well argued – and wrong, in a basic premise concerning literacy and in relying primarily on data from tests and test settings. The basic premise which this article disputes is that the current definition of success in school and in literacy is right and acceptable, whereby reading is defined as the ability to perform well on a reading achievement test, writing as the ability to do worksheet-type exercises on mechanics, vocabulary, etc., i.e. otherwise meaningless tasks. The value of the evidence used to support Cummins' theory is disputed on three counts: (a) the philosophical underpinnings of the research tradition it represents (in which hypotheses are specified *a priori*, variables are 'operationalised', and the aim is to make generalisations true across time and setting); (b) the general failure to reveal how dependent variables were conceptualised and operationalised (when specification is given, many of the equivalences are clearly inadequate, i.e. 'cognitive aspects of language' meant the ability to produce or match printed synonyms or vocabulary items); (c) the total reliance on data from test-like settings, which really only reflect 'test-wiseness', not real achievement.

Some constructs used by Swain and Cummins are criticised. CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency) is a tautology – it is defined as the ability to do what schools (unfortunately) define as achievement of various kinds, which in turn is defined as CALP. Moreover, CALP is explicitly equated with Oller's 'global language

proficiency'; since lower SES and minority language groups consistently score lower on tests of 'academic language ability', does this mean global language proficiency is differentially distributed according to class or language background? The distinction between CALP and BICS (basic interpersonal communicative skill) is absurd, because interpersonal communication demands the same abilities that define cognitive academic language ability (linguistic manipulation, logic, cognitive strategies, etc.), all of which are present in children's everyday oral language. The only thing which distinguishes CALP is meaninglessness and artificiality. Another construct which is criticised is semilingualism, less than native competence in both languages, which again and again turns out to mean an inability to do meaningless exercises in a test-like setting. Unfortunately the term 'semilingualism' fits all too well into popular stereotypes about 'alingual' children.

An alternative way of defining school success is proposed which has as its aim that children should acquire proficiency in controlling authentic texts as an extension of communicative competence. Evaluation would be as direct as possible, i.e. of students' actual reading and writing. Once children have become literate through a continued emphasis on real literacy they will be able to enter into the game of learning how to do literacy exercises for narrow instrumental purposes.

84–175 Vogel, Klaus (U. of Göttingen). Kriterien zur Beschreibung und Beurteilung von Experimenten im Bereich der Sprachlehrforschung. [Criteria for describing and judging experiments in language-teaching research.] *Bielefelder Beiträge zur Sprachlehrforschung* (Bielefeld, FRG), **10**, 2 (1981), 115–35.

Language learning and teaching research is an empirical discipline but must be based on concepts defined and tested by experiment. The student teacher needs guidance in assessing the research available to him; this could take the form of a list of questions relating to the frame of reference of the experiment, the planning and execution, the validity of the results and of the generalisations drawn from them.

The article analyses the types of experiment available, referring to each of the above headings, and concludes with a checklist of questions of use to the student. Useful distinctions in the form of experiments are made, as between laboratory, field, projective, and control group types; their merits and defects are reviewed. The constituent factors of all experiments are defined and reviewed, e.g. theory, variables, hypotheses, measuring instruments; and the concepts of validity, reliability and objectivity are scrutinised. Students are warned to pay attention not only to the explicit claims of experiments but to their underlying presuppositions and their likely implications for teaching.

TESTING

84-176 Atze, Charlotte. Zur Bewertung und Zensierung von mündlichen Leistungen. [The evaluation and marking of oral performance.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin, GDR), **25**, 10 (1981), 479–86.

Suggestions are made for a concrete system of criteria for the objective evaluation and marking of spoken language. To have a firm basis for such a marking system, the teacher must first of all decide exactly what he is expecting of the pupils and the pupils must also be aware of what is expected of them. The teacher must also distinguish between the types of language production: whether it is monologue or dialogue and whether it is guided or free. Marking criteria must vary accordingly. Detailed guidelines are provided for marking, taking into account various factors, in the form of descriptions of criteria for evaluation and evaluation tables.

84-177 Brown, David. Conversational cloze tests and conversational ability. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **37**, 2 (1983), 158–61.

Can written cloze tests help us to measure a language learner's oral ability? Arthur Hughes, in *ELT Journal* **35**, 2, suggested that 'conversational' cloze tests (which are cloze tests constructed from the transcripts of conversations) can do this. This article considers a subsequent piece of research designed to examine further the relationship between performance on conversational cloze tests and oral ability. Thirty students of English language each took part in two interviews, which were recorded. They also completed two conversational cloze tests. The interviews and the cloze tests were then scored. The ranks of the students' interview scores were then compared with the students' ranks on the cloze test scores. The results showed a high correlation, which suggests that conversational cloze tests may be a good measure of oral ability.

84-178 Curtin, Constance and others. The Pimsleur Battery as a predictor of student performance. *Modern Language Journal* (London), **67**, 1 (1983), 33–40.

The predictive power of the well-established Pimsleur Language Aptitude Battery is called in question by a study of student performance at University High School, Urbana, Illinois. Final grades of students in French, German, Latin and Russian are compared with the predictions made using the battery for incoming freshmen. The population is a combined 7th–8th grade of 311 uniformly high-aptitude students.

Pearson correlation coefficients are established between grade point averages on entering and leaving the school, and the final total of the Pimsleur battery scores. Only low positive correlations are demonstrated. Correlations with the six sub-tests composing the battery are also weak, and a stepwise multiple regression analysis of the correlation matrix shows that the strongest single predictor is the overall school ability factor, represented by the grade point average on entry, particularly for Latin. The next strongest predictor is ability to analyse language. It is concluded that no component of the Pimsleur battery is strongly predictive and that the total score predicts better, though not very reliably. Supplementary predictors or guides to student abilities are needed. However, the battery has a diagnostic value for teachers.

84-179 Reiske, Heinz and others. Der Grundbaustein (BGS) zum VHS-Zertifikat Englisch. [The First Examination towards the Certificate in English of the German adult education colleges.] *Zielsprache Englisch* (Munich, FRG), **12**, 2 (1982), 1-28 (pt. I) and **12**, 3 (1982), 9-3 (pt. II).

The issue of a specimen test for the First Examination in English provides an opportunity for twelve contributors to discuss the usefulness of this new examination and its relation to the Certificate. In an introductory article, Reiske recalls that the Certificate, elaborated in the late '60s and early '70s, led to a radical and welcome change in language teaching in adult education colleges. He questions the need for the First Examination as a lower level examination. Its objectives, as shown in its syllabus of notions and topics, are similar to those of the Certificate; 60% of the vocabulary is the same. It would have been better to concentrate on the organisation and methods of teaching. Other critics see the new examination as merely a logical consequence of the Council of Europe projects, regret that the linguistic basis and methodological approach have been insufficiently tested, see in it a possible first step towards a centrally organised examination and would have preferred a start to be made in a minor language instead of English. One critic detects a sexist attitude. The majority of contributors, however, welcome the First Examination as an intermediate goal, likely to have a motivating effect on the many students unable to complete the Certificate course; the similarity of objectives is entirely justified; the actual linguistic load is lighter, yet it has been shown to be adequate for everyday communication.

84-180 Rossi, Gary J. (Mansfield (PA) State College). Foreign language proficiency testing: a selected, annotated guide to standardised instruments, rating scales, and literature. *French Review* (Baltimore, Md), **56**, 6 (1983), 840-58.

An introductory guide to existing tests of foreign languages and English as a foreign language, with a supporting bibliography. Part I provides short descriptions of the major standardised language proficiency tests available in USA and Australia for French and English. The content, target constituency, rationale, rating scales, and sources of further information are given in catalogue form. Part II is an annotated bibliography of 94 publications relating to language testing issues.

84-181 Schaefer, Carl F. (American U., Washington DC). The cloze procedure for placement testing. *Glottodidactica* (Poznań, Poland), **15** (1982), 75-82.

Notwithstanding the conflicting claims and counterclaims made for cloze tests, they are a reliable and efficient instrument for placement testing as is shown by experience at the American University, grading international students for an English language programme. Students are usually rated in three ways: a teacher assessment on a 1-7 scale; the McGraw-Hill CELT test; a composition writing task. Some also arrive with TOEFL scores that further indicate their level. Two cloze tests were administered to a total of 238 students and scores were shown to correlate at above 0.80 with scores obtained by the other instruments. Scoring was by the acceptable word method on a total of 75 deletions at six-word intervals. The cloze this shows it is as valid and

reliable as other placement tests, if not more so. Moreover, it is easy to construct, administer and mark. Therefore, for placement purposes, the cloze has shown itself to be a powerful and inexpensive test.

SYLLABUS/COURSE DESIGN

84-182 Lehmann, Denis (ENS de Saint-Cloud). L'identification des besoins en langue étrangère des publics spécifiques; préalables à leur opérationnalisation didactique. [Identifying the language needs of specific groups prior to putting them into effect in teaching.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **37** (1983), 74-90.

The primacy accorded to the concept of language needs a few years ago has been replaced by a certain scepticism. The concept itself can be variously defined: broadly, extending to social, cultural and other factors outside the classroom; or so narrowly as to be coterminous with the identification of linguistic targets and objectives. Yet to disregard language needs entirely is to disregard the learner, and no course design which excludes the student and his or her personality, aptitude and motivation can be a valid one. In the case of language taught for special purposes (e.g. scientific or technical), analysis of language needs becomes indispensable.

84-183 Tinkel, Anthony J. (Oratory Sch., Reading). Language study in the sixth form. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular* (Nottingham), **10**, 2 (1981), 186-92.

Recent seminars and conferences on linguistics in schools are briefly reviewed. A language study course being taught at one school is described, for sixth form pupils taking A-levels in a wide range of subjects. The aims of the course are complementary to those of O-level English Language courses; by increasing students' awareness of the nature and functioning of language, to make them more sensitive to their own and other people's use of it. System and use of system cannot be held apart. Each new point in the syllabus should be presented so as to encourage students to start searching for their own examples. Tasks should not be regarded as exercises but as explorations. Two cardinal principles are that the teacher must work from and through the students' native-speaker knowledge, and must concentrate on the facts of language rather than on theories which try to explain those facts. Students need to learn to use basic, essential terminology.

The syllabus is divided into three stages: (1) definition of language and human communication, (2) examination of one particular language, English (speech sound and structure), and (3) relationship between meaning and structure, and aspects of context (this part is about half of the course). The course should be student-centred and data-orientated. It must be a systematic covering of all the principal aspects of language. The syllabus described has been approved for examination at A-level on a Mode 3 basis for a trial period.

84–184 Utheß, Herbert and Utheß, Sabine. Zur Einführung der neuen Lehrpläne für den Fremdsprachenunterricht auf der Abiturstufe. [On the introduction of new teaching schedules for foreign language teaching in the sixth form.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin, GDR), **27**, 2/3 (1983), 61–84.

The skills of listening comprehension, speaking, reading, translation and writing are discussed in relation to the new GDR teaching schedules, to be introduced in 1983–4. Each area is analysed according to its aims and importance, the nature and preparation of materials, stimulation and guidance by the teacher and the rehearsal of component skills. Comprehension (summary and detailed), speaking (discussion, social conversation and monologue) and reading skills (summary, detailed and ‘searching’) are given greatest weight, although translation and writing are important as practical skills and reinforcement exercises. Guidelines are set down for the selection and presentation of materials and suggestions made for the practice of subsidiary skills by means of short exercises.

84–185 George, Graham H. *Designing a foreign-language syllabus. Modern Languages* (London), **64**, 1 (1983), 17–22.

A discussion about a suitable foreign-language syllabus for secondary, comprehensive-school pupils beginning a foreign language on entry at 11, unstreamed at least for the first year. The aims are: the development of communicative skills; an awareness of language in general as well as of the language(s) studied; an awareness of the wider cultural and linguistic world, of what is being learned and why and, at the end of the course, a knowledge of one’s capability in the language.

A language programme contains elements drawn from many different syllabuses (lexical, structural, etc.) No one syllabus can be the sole organising principle: the learners in question and their particular needs are paramount. The needs of school-children are potential rather than actual. The pupil must be allowed a certain amount of autonomy from the beginning, if he is to develop autonomous use of language. The teacher will be a ‘facilitator’ rather than an instructor.

TEACHER TRAINING

84–186 Joyce, Ed (British Council, Greece). Finalising the preparation of a lesson. *English Teaching Forum* (Washington, DC), **21**, 2 (1983), 25–9.

All teachers, especially trainees and the inexperienced, need help in learning how to decide what to include in a lesson. A check sheet is described which should help them decide whether to include an activity in a lesson by making them view the lesson from a practical point of view. The check sheet should show up any possible problems. It is divided into three parts concerning (1) the student, (2) the teacher, (3) the aids.

84–187 Kennedy, Chris. An ESP approach to EFL/ESL teacher training. *ESP Journal* (Washington, DC), **2** (1983), 73–85.

The concentration on learner needs in ESP programmes has led to the neglect of teacher needs, particularly in the case of teacher-training courses. A solution to the problem is to apply ESP principles to the design of teacher-training courses for 'general English' teachers. The language needs of EFL/ESL teachers, both those required to complete courses successfully (course needs/study skills) and to operate in a full professional role (teaching needs/activities) are described. By integrating training course content with teachers' language requirements we can develop ESP courses for teachers. A multilevel model of course design is presented, each level moving from content, through format and methodology, to the language required to understand content. The syllabus can be adjusted to suit the conceptual and linguistic requirements of teachers on particular courses, while maintaining the subject-language link at all times. The concept of ESP for teachers reveals the need for research into (a) the language difficulties experienced by teachers on English language-teaching training courses, (b) the language of EFL/ESL teaching, and (c) the structure of both spoken and written academic English language teaching and applied linguistics texts.

84–188 Lütjen, Hans Peter. Schule und Anwendung – Die Hochschulen und die Fortbildung von Fremdsprachenlehrern oder: Wie vermeide ich voreilige Rezepte? [Schools and practice – universities and colleges and the further training of foreign-language teachers, or: how to avoid ill-considered prescriptions.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Wiesbaden, FRG), **81** (1982), 71–82.

Further teacher training is becoming and will continue to become increasingly important. Teachers today have to concern themselves not only with the classroom itself but also with the whole school as a sphere of existence and with the social environment of the school. However, despite what is offered in the way of further training opportunities teachers still experience difficulty in putting their newly acquired knowledge into practice, and university courses and examinations do not prepare prospective teachers for their changed and changing role in today's world. University language courses must begin to incorporate psychology and sociolinguistics, as well as aspects of other disciplines. Furthermore, students must get used to being confronted with real-life problems. Only by such restructuring can university courses offer students more opportunities when they have completed their studies and enable them really to identify with their subject in today's world. To achieve this, the attitudes of university and college teachers must change correspondingly and courses must be more ready to incorporate knowledge gathered from practising teachers.

Methods of broadening the scope of language study in the ways outlined above were used successfully with students in a remand home. The approach is briefly described here. The author also touches on the teaching of textual analysis in vocational training courses and stresses the importance of continuing contact between centres of higher education and practising teachers.

84-189 Mangin, Bernard (Lanco, Paris). *Langages corporels et pédagogie: le cas de l'apprentissage des langues*. [Body language and foreign-language teaching.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Paris), **64** (1982), 297-323.

As regards foreign-language learning in groups, the body plays a double role in the interaction between verbal and non-verbal aspects of communication: (1) as part and parcel of the pedagogical relationship which develops within the group, it induces a certain 'parallel language', which might be called non-verbal language; (2) as an amplifier of communicative exchanges, as opposed to purely verbal aspects, it induces other communicative and situational contexts.

The effect of this as regards teacher-training is twofold. The teacher/group leader must be aware of the non-verbal signals within the group. This necessarily entails a study both of one's own body and of others, so as to increase all-round listening. The participants must be able to use the totality of the body's resources in communicative situations, both verbal and non-verbal, so as to enrich the relationship text/context, which in practice will involve the use of drama techniques.

84-190 Nowak, J. *Berufswahlentscheidungen von angehenden Fremdsprachenlehrern mit der Fächerkombination Französisch/Englisch*. [Occupational choice processes in new entrants to the foreign language teaching profession combining French with English.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **82**, 1 (1983), 61-82.

Two paradigms of occupational choice theory are analysed. A heuristic model including both allocation and decision making variables is described. The model serves as a tentative and only descriptive framework for empirical data concerning occupational choice processes. A hundred freshmen enrolled at the University of Augsburg on a foreign-language course (French and English) and intending to become foreign-language teachers filled in a questionnaire related to their choice of occupation. The main empirical findings were as follows. (a) Counselling services the freshmen had consulted proved to be more or less ineffective. The number of alternatives taken into account before a final decision in favour of future entry into the teaching profession was remarkably small in most cases. (b) Almost all those questioned were really motivated as far as their study subjects (French and English language) were concerned. (c) There was a considerable tendency to underestimate those parts of the curriculum which were relevant to the future teaching role. (d) The theory is put forward that both allocation and decision making variables contribute to these results. Tentative conclusions regarding teacher training are discussed.

TEACHING METHODS

84-191 Barry, William J. (U. of Kiel). Instrumentelle Phonetik für den Aussprachenunterricht: Hilfe oder Humbug? [Instrumental phonetics in the teaching of pronunciation: help or humbug?] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **82**, 1 (1983), 2-15.

The instrumental phonetic analysis of pronunciation norms and learners' performance may reveal general and individual problems and provide a monitor of progress in learning. The use of instrumental techniques in the classroom is limited by cost, complexity and time, but more seriously by the lack of unambiguous correspondence between auditory impressions of mispronunciation and independent measurable events in the speech wave. While pronunciation problems must initially be auditorily defined, instrumental phonetics can nevertheless play a supportive role in providing finer detail of analysis and in presenting controlled data in perceptual tests. The latter are seen in the fundamental role of heightening the learner's awareness of differences in pronunciation. Student teachers might be trained in the use of such an approach, thus overcoming fear of equipment and communication problems between the disciplines, and ensuring greater awareness of the nature of pronunciation problems, awareness that is crucial for teachers and learners alike.

84-192 Boucher, R. Claude (École des Langues des Forces Canadiennes). Éléments de solution pédagogique à la crise d'identité de l'adulte. [Teaching and the adult learner's identity crisis: towards an educational solution.] *Medium* (Ottawa), **8**, 1 (1983), 102-12.

An educational strategy based on student needs and on recognition of individual differences maximises the learner's motivation and promotes learning, encouraging students to assume responsibility for the learning process. Unfortunately many teachers of the old school are unable to treat their students as adults. Where the learners are soldiers, the student-centred approach to language teaching encounters further difficulties. Soldiers are trained to obey orders, not to take responsibility or show initiative, and their motivation is usually nil. A desensitisation process is called for so that the soldier-students can adjust to their new situation.

84-193 Burger, Günter. Zur Analyse von Video-Spielfilmen im fortgeschrittenen Englischunterricht. Didaktisch-methodische Grundlagen und Materialhinweise. [The analysis of video-drama in advanced English teaching.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **82**, 2 (1983), 169-82.

British and American feature films can be very useful in advanced English language teaching. They are motivating for most students, they are suited for developing watching/listening comprehension, and they are effective tools in both cultural studies and literature courses. Since many feature films are now available on video, they can easily be obtained and presented for discussion in the classroom. In this article a method for analysing feature films of 90 minutes or more is described in detail. The paper also makes suggestions for working creatively with a film (performing role-plays

based on the film's theme, writing a new script, etc.) and gives a list of suitable video films which are commercially available.

84–194 Butzkamm, Wolfgang. *Rezeption vor Produktion – Zur Neugestaltung des Anfangsunterrichts.* [Reception before production – the restructuring of course methods for beginners.] *Deutsch Lernen* (Mainz, FRG), **2** (1982), 40–55.

The author advocates greater emphasis on listening comprehension alone in the early stages and recommends waiting until students feel ready to speak. Various detailed examples show how the present amount of listening students are allowed before being asked to repeat and/or produce freely is inadequate and leads to embarrassment and confusion in the students and a tendency in the teacher simply to 'give up'. Other examples taken from young children learning a first language show that learners are critically aware on a receptive level of what is right and what is wrong in utterances well before they are able to produce the utterances adequately or even comprehensibly. The experiences of L2 learners living in the target country strongly indicate that there is a long period of language assimilation and storage before they feel ready to speak. The feeling of readiness then comes quite suddenly. Ideas are suggested for truly active listening comprehension exercises which lead very gradually to meaningful repetition and language production.

84–195 Chiang, Joseph S. (Holy Rosary Church, Jersey City, NJ) and **Costello, John R.** (New York U.) The acquisition of syntax in first and second language learning. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **21**, 1 (1983), 19–31.

Data are presented which indicate that the language-learning capability of adolescents and adults who are acquiring a second language differs from that of children who are acquiring their native language; thus the successful teaching and learning of a second language must differ from the teaching and learning of a first language. These views contrast with claims made by Newmark and Reibel (1968) who assert that the 'systematic organisation of the grammatical form of the language material exposed to the learner is neither necessary nor sufficient for his mastery of the language'; such organisation is necessary, although not sufficient in itself. They also claim that the 'presentation of particular instances of languages in contexts which exemplify their meaning and use [i.e. in dialogues] is both sufficient and necessary'; such presentation is necessary, but not sufficient in itself. It is therefore suggested that second-language teachers isolate complex structures [examples], and that they reserve a significant portion of class time for the explanation, discussion, and practice of these structures, in order that the structures may be mastered by all of their students.

84–196 Costermans, Jean and Lelong, Odette (U. of Louvain). *Oppositions et confusions entre les caractères de l'écriture cursive.* [Oppositions and confusions between characters in handwriting.] *Cahiers de l'Institut de Linguistique de Louvain* (Louvain, Belgium), **8**, 1/2 (1982), 3–24.

The way human subjects decipher print, and more particularly handwriting, suggests that graphemes should be seen as abstract elements which can have infinitely many

realisations, rather than as well-defined geometric configurations. A review of previous research, mostly on print, shows little agreement between results. Data taken from experiments in which handwriting samples were obtained, and individual letters from them used in a recognition test, are analysed. Five factors emerge as particularly important in accounting for confusions, e.g. presence or absence of a vertical stroke (*p* vs. *a*); left or right position of the vertical (*d* vs. *b*). The results are far from conclusive and the authors note that the interest of their work lies also in the further questions to which it gives rise (e.g. how to uncover the distinguishing features of *u* vs. *v*, when one of the permitted handwritten versions of *v* closely resembles *u*?).

84–197 Danchev, Andrei (Institute for Foreign Students, Sofia). Transfer and translation. *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), 2 (1982), 39–61.

Though both have been thoroughly examined separately, transfer and translation have rarely been studied as related phenomena, though Harris hinted at a strong connection in 1954. Transfer is shown to be a universal feature of language contact and a perpetual source of language change, though negatively it equates with ‘interference’ in L2 learners. While most research has focused on conscious translation, unconscious translation, very similar to interference seems to be a universal of most kinds of bilingualism and takes the form of the borrowing of syntactic patterns rather than of lexis and morphology. Attention is drawn to the calque (loan translation, e.g. *Fernsprecher* for ‘telephone’) as highlighting a midway stage between diachronic language growth and synchronic interference. Transfer may thus be regarded as the unconscious side, and translation the conscious side, of the same activity, both equally natural and universal. If translation is taken to consist mainly of interlingual transformations, transfer can then be regarded as isomorphous translation, where the obligatory transformations have not been carried out.

As the learner is thus going to translate anyway, and may be learning in order to translate, language teachers should reconsider the role of translation in their teaching since it harmonises with the learner’s strategies and motivation, and the practical needs of the world at large. Suggestions are made for an appropriate translation component of language courses.

84–198 Dodson, C. J. (University Coll. of Wales, Aberystwyth). Bilingualism, language teaching and learning. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, 21, 1 (1983), 3–8.

Until recently, first-language learning has been the only model studied for the teaching of additional languages, despite the fact that Europe offers many examples of small societies forced to become bilingual in order to survive. Since the Second World War these minority groups have found a voice as they endeavour to ‘regain’ their language; sometimes this must be done in the classroom because the language has disappeared from the local environment, as in the case of Welsh in many parts of Wales. Exactly the same classroom interactions are required for the efficient learning of Welsh as are required for French or any other additional language. After the war the Welsh authorities developed a variety of language-teaching programmes

based on the latest theories about the direct method, yet by the early 1960s the results were disappointing. Controlled experiments were therefore carried out to test the theory that second-language learning should replicate first-language learning. It was found that even the best teachers found it extremely difficult, following the direct method, to create classroom situations which allowed pupils to reach a level of communicative competence necessary for normal bilingual purposes.

Empirical investigations into young children learning two languages simultaneously in a bilingual setting showed that the young bilingual does not have two first languages but has a preferred and a second language for any area of experience, though the status of the languages may be reversed at a later stage. He will take short cuts to reach a communicative level in his second language as soon as possible, often asking to be given the meaning, in his first language, of any words or phrases which he does not understand. He also compares and contrasts utterances from both languages and permutes elements of utterances in both languages. Adults in a foreign country with a language they do not know, use the same short cuts. These activities which utilise the preferred language are forbidden in the direct method, but have been incorporated into the initial learning steps of the bilingual method. This method consists of alternating stages of 'medium-orientated' (focusing on language) and 'message-orientated' communication (focusing on satisfying non-linguistic needs, i.e. survival). The development towards communicative competence is a fluctuating process between these two levels; the importance of medium-oriented communication gradually diminishes but never entirely disappears. Ideally the foreign language should be the means whereby other subjects are studied.

84-199 Donald, D. R. (U. of Cape Town). The use and value of illustrations as contextual information for readers at different progress and developmental levels. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* (London), **53**, 2 (1983), 175-85.

Controversy surrounds the role of illustrations in reading development. Supporters of the focal attention hypothesis claim that illustrations act as distractors in learning the cues to individual word recognition. Conversely, within a psycholinguistic framework, the contextual hypothesis maintains that in learning to read *continuous* text illustrations may constitute a legitimate source of semantic information. Whether this serves an adaptive function, and at what levels of reading development, was the essential research question.

From 1,868 children across grades I to V, 120 good and poor readers at reading ages 7 and 9 were selected. Subjects read narrative extracts of 320 words with or without illustrations. Results in general confirmed the contextual hypothesis. More specifically, illustrations were adaptively used in terms of textual message identification, information processing strategy and comprehension by good readers at RA 7. Poor readers particularly at RA 9 showed significant illustration effects, but strategy results suggested a non-adaptive function. Good readers at RA 9 were least affected, appearing independent of illustrative information.

84-200 Edmondson, Willis and House, Juliane. Höflichkeit als Lernziel im Englischunterricht. [Politeness as a learning objective in English teaching.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), **35**, 4 (1982), 218-27.

One of the requirements placed upon students of English in the FRG is that they should be able to express themselves in the appropriate register in various situations. Appropriateness is, of course, a variable, but one aspect of it is politeness. Politeness is defined and analysed into two types: politeness in terms of such conventional set forms as *please* and *thank you*, and in terms of the degree of politeness used in the realisation of a certain speech act. The student must be familiar with both types but the second type is more variable and consequently leads to more errors.

The principles of politeness in English are discussed and the basis of politeness defined as showing consideration for the feelings of one's partner in conversation. Examples of failed attempts at polite conversation are given as well as general guidelines for avoiding impoliteness as far as possible. Furthermore, suggestions are made as to why German speakers often come over as impolite when speaking English. Students must be made cognitively aware of the effects on the listener of various conversational forms, and ideas are put forward for achieving this in the classroom.

84-201 Genesee, Fred (McGill U.). Bilingual education of majority-language children: the immersion experiments in review. *Applied Psycholinguistics* (Cambridge), **4**, 1 (1983), 1-46.

Second-language 'immersion' school programmes that have been developed in Canada and the United States during the last two decades are described and the results of evaluative research pertaining to them are reviewed. Major immersion programme alternatives (i.e. early, delayed, and late variants) along with their theoretical bases and pedagogical characteristics, are described first. Research findings are then discussed with respect to the impact of participation in an immersion programme on the students' native-language development, academic achievement, second-language proficiency, and on their attitudes and second-language use. Also, the suitability of immersion in different geographical social settings and for students with distinctive, potentially handicapping characteristics is considered. It is concluded that second-language immersion programmes are feasible and effective forms of education for majority-language children with diverse characteristics.

84-202 Grindhammer, Lucille W. Culture in the foreign language classroom: an additional source of material. *Englisch* (Berlin), **18**, 1 (1983), 21-5.

A source of material for bringing culture content into the classroom is the mail-order catalogue. It is not only culturally and linguistically informative, but also available and easily adaptable to the foreign-language classroom. The use of the catalogue with intermediate learners of English is described. Catalogues serve to show the average citizen, and employ a useful and up-to-date vocabulary. Once selected, the text will need editing by the teacher. [Suggestions for worksheets and exercises.]

84-203 Haber, Lyn R. and others. (U. of Illinois at Chicago). Word length and word shape as sources of information in reading. *Reading Research Quarterly* (Newark, Del), **18**, 2 (1983), 165-89.

College students were asked to read passages presented one or two lines at a time and ending randomly in the middle of a sentence. They had to guess the next word. Then more of the text appeared, ending again in the middle of a sentence, and again requiring a guess at the next word, and so forth. Information provided about the word to be guessed was none, its length, the shape of its envelope, the word following, or combinations of these. The passage also varied in difficulty level. The probability of a correct guess improved as more information was provided and as passage difficulty decreased. Specifically, providing knowledge of the length of a word to be guessed increased the accuracy of the response, as did providing the shape of the word. Providing the following word increased accuracy even further. Thus, readers are able to make use of word length and word shape information to decode text. These results interacted with part of speech, since some types of words benefited more than others. Subsidiary analyses showed that the erroneous responses were more likely to match the correct word in length or in shape when those sources of information were provided. Further, the errors were classified according to their syntactic and semantic appropriateness to the correct word. When an erroneous response was made, it was not random since the more information given, especially that of the next word, the 'better' the error, both syntactically and semantically.

84-204 Hellmich, Harald and Karbe, Ursula. Fremdsprachige Gesprächsführung und Könnensentwicklung. [Conducting conversation in a foreign language; developing a competence.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), **18**, 4 (1981), 215-22.

In an analysis of the conversational needs of the foreign language learner, emphasis is placed on the divergent social, as well as linguistic, experience of learners and native speakers. The foreign-language teacher should make learners better acquainted with such differences, and also promote the learner's own analytic ability in such matters. The features of the foreign-language communication situation are typified, and an approximation to a catalogue of communicative intentions is presented. The latter is based primarily on the analysis of illocutionary speech acts in their control function in interaction. The aims and methods of teaching situationally adequate (linguistic and non-linguistic) abilities of initiation and reaction are sketched.

84-205 Heringer, Hans Jürgen (U. of Augsburg). Verschnittene Anschauung? Bilder im Sprachunterricht. [Pictures in language teaching.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich, FRG), **47/48** (1981), 121-38.

The link between pictures and language has a history in developmental psychology and linguistic theory as well as in language teaching. In the latter, illustrative, encyclopedic, explicatory, descriptive and narrative functions have been assumed. In all cases pictures are used in relation to speech activities, but they do not in themselves

represent these activities. They presuppose rather than produce language. Pictures and language do not have equal semiotic functions; e.g. one can ask questions and make false statements using language. A weakness underlying the traditional uses of pictures, that they do not unambiguously depict the whole of reality, can become a strength if their use in teaching concentrates also on what they cannot directly depict, such as sequential or causal relationships between pictures in a series.

84–206 Holec, Henri. L'approche communicative, cru 1982. [The communicative approach, 1982 vintage.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1982, 65–79.

This article discusses two main aspects of what adopting a communicative approach means nowadays: (a) formulating teaching/learning problems in terms of the *uses* which speakers make of the language, the 'communicative' use being important but by no means the only one; (b) formulating these problems in terms of language *users*, that is, of speakers (which in this context means people learning to use the language) who are able to play the pragmatic roles which will allow them to achieve their extra-discursive objectives.

This concept of the language user emphasises the fact that communication is a process, not just a ready-made mould, a process which is not merely mechanical, since it has to be renewed and reconstructed by the participants in every interaction.

Some of the methodological implications of this development are briefly described and illustrated.

84–207 Johnson, Donna M. Natural language learning by design: a classroom experiment in social interaction and second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), 17, 1 (1983), 55–68.

The purpose of this classroom experiment was to examine the effects of Inter-ethnolinguistic Peer Tutoring (IEPT) on the social interaction and English language proficiency of Spanish-speaking elementary children. The relationship between verbal interaction in English and growth in English language proficiency was also examined. A matched pairs experimental design was employed. Subjects were tested on three measures of English language proficiency, the PPVT, the LAS and the CCCT. They were observed to determine the degree to which they interacted in English with fluent English speakers. They were then matched on the basis of an overall English proficiency score and an interaction score, and were assigned to a treatment or control group. The IEPT treatment consisted of sessions designed to provide a structured setting for natural language practice between an LES and an FES student. Students were observed weekly for verbal interactions during their free time. They were post-tested on the three measures of English language proficiency. A trend analysis, correlations, and *t* tests provided some evidence that the IEPT treatment resulted in increased verbal interaction in English. No relationship was demonstrated between amount of verbal interaction in English and growth in English language proficiency based on an analysis using partial correlations. The results of *t* tests revealed that the IEPT treatment resulted in increased vocabulary comprehension as measured by the PPVT, but no differences between treatment and control group were found on the

LAS and the CCCT tests. The discussion emphasises the importance of utilising the language input of FES children in designing ESL programmes.

84–208 Kleinschmidt, Eberhard and Nubold, Peter. Sprachlaborarbeit zu Beginn der achtziger Jahre – Ergebnisse einer Untersuchung. [Language laboratories at the beginning of the 1980s – results of a survey.] *Englisch* (Berlin, FRG), **18**, 1 (1983), 16–20.

Under the auspices of the Lower Saxony Minister of Education a commission was set up to investigate how language laboratories were being used in schools and why they were not being exploited properly, and to make suggestions for further teacher training in the better use of the laboratory facilities. The survey was carried out on the basis of forms sent to language laboratory managers and language teachers working at schools with language laboratory facilities.

The results of the survey showed that knowledge was lacking both on the technical and the teaching sides. Teachers were not exploiting the language laboratory fully for purposes of individualised teaching, checking and testing, providing different exercise-types; nor were they able efficiently to integrate language laboratory work with the various stages of a lesson or unit (input, practice, production). Teachers proved to be relatively reluctant to use the wide variety of listening materials available, both those connected with the course books they were using and those independent of any course books.

As a result of the findings, training courses were held all over Lower Saxony to train teachers to use the language laboratory to its full potential. After this training, their task was to persuade their colleagues to make freer and better use of the facilities.

84–209 Knop, Constance K. (U. of Wisconsin, Madison). Classroom applications of the notional-functional syllabus. *Medium* (Quebec), **8**, 1 (1983), 55–62.

Aspects of the notional-functional syllabus could be implemented by using the target language realistically and consistently in class with appropriate and varied registers and by teaching students expressions that carry out functions typical of their interactions with the teacher and with other students. Textual materials could also be exploited more fully by isolating and analysing the functions that the structures in a dialogue are carrying out and by developing a systematic variety of registers and linguistic encodings for a given function. In this way, students will acquire a larger repertoire of utterances for performing a particular function; they will also become aware of registers that can be conveyed by choosing different encodings. Using these ideas, students can be helped to become more sensitive to communicative interchanges and to interact appropriately in a variety of speech acts.

84–210 Kummer, Irmela (U. of Berne). *Wissenschaftliche Texte im fremdsprachendidaktischen Kontext. Didaktische Instruktionen als Handlungsanweisungen.* [Scientific texts in the context of foreign-language teaching. Didactic instructions as procedural instructions.] *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **37** (1983), 91–101.

Written texts play a predominant role in scientific communication, and are characterised by their situational use, especially by the status of the addressees as experts or laymen. An important part of the process of understanding such a text is the pre-communicative stage. For the expert this involves seeking out terminology, names, formulae, etc. The non-native reader is guided foremost by what he does and does not understand at the linguistic level. Didactic instructions should guide the reader/learner from this pre-communicative stage to the communicative interpretation of the text, for example by helping him to make use of the structure of the text, or the presence of connectives, etc. Text-based questions as part of didactic instruction highlight relevant elements and involve first selective, then detailed reading processes. Typically, the learner as a reader only has to understand a text for the purpose of the control questions and drills; these should be carefully designed so that texts do not just provide language learning drills, but are also appreciated in their functional role. Projects involving text selection and critical comparison might be used in a manner more useful and stimulating to the learner.

84–211 Littlewood, William (University Coll. of Swansea). *A framework for teaching communicative skills.* *Finlance* (Jyväskylä, Finland), **2** (1982), 149–56.

Four main domains of skill which constitute the goal of a communicative methodology are that the learner needs (1) to control the language system fluently and creatively; (2) to be aware of different ways in which communicative intentions may be expressed; (3) to be able to express (or interpret) meanings effectively in specific situations; and (4) to be conscious of the social implications of different forms. These domains are a general description of the 'part-skills' of communication. For teaching purposes they can be dealt with separately, but practice in the 'total skill' of communication, in which the different parts become integrated, must also be given. The 'formal instruction' model of how knowledge and skills are generally learned in classrooms suggests that the learning task should be broken into its component parts and proficiency developed in these separate parts. Concurrently or later, whole-task practice helps the learner to integrate the part-skills into communicative proficiency. On the other hand, the 'natural learning' model of how languages are learned outside classrooms suggests avoiding breaking up the total skill and trying to create natural learning situations in the classroom. What is certain is that a balance needs to be kept between part-skill training and whole-task practice. In part-skill activities (which can also be called 'pre-communicative'), the teacher may guide the learners' perceptions more precisely, control the practice and, in providing feedback, focus to a greater extent on formal aspects of language use (especially accuracy). In communicative activities, on the other hand, the learners can be given more freedom to process language in their own ways and to use it creatively even at the expense of formal

accuracy. Examples of pre-communicative activities are pronunciation practice, oral drills, question-and-answer practice based on pictures, gap-filling exercises, etc. Examples of communicative activities are problem-solving tasks, discussion sessions, role-playing, etc.

84-212 McPhee, Alastair D. (Trinity High Sch., Renfrew, Scotland). Micro-processors and the teaching of English. *Teaching English* (Edinburgh), **16**, 3 (1983), 9-17.

A microcomputer system as used in most schools consists of a keyboard containing the central processing unit. The information is displayed on a monitor (or even an ordinary television set). It can be stored in a data storage system, which might be an ordinary audio cassette recorder, or a disk-drive unit. Four main uses of microcomputer systems in the teaching of English (as a mother tongue) are (a) simulation gaming, (b) language games, (c) as a word processor and (d) (with a viewdata system) for information retrieval.

There may also be some potential for the micro in the management of the English Department, in keeping track of book stock, preparation of orders of merit, indexing units of work and other resources, drafting and presentation of policy documents, preparation of agendas for meetings, etc. Assessment is the teacher's most time-consuming clerical burden, but whereas raw scores can be stored easily, continuous measurement presents a problem in terms of time needed to key up and room to store all the information required. The computer can be used to provide profile-type information for parents, covering the various components of the syllabus, but the sheer bulk of material produced makes storage a problem.

84-213 Meßmann, Waltraut and Scheibner-Herzig, Gudrun. Kognitives und audiolinguales Lernen im dritten Englisch-Unterrichtsjahr einer Realschule, untersucht an Beispiel des Relativsatzes. [A comparison between cognitive and audio-lingual learning methods in the third year of English at a non-academic secondary school, based on the relative clause.] *Linguistische Berichte* (Wiesbaden, FRG), **83** (1983), 115-21.

A comparison was made between two methods of teaching grammar: the cognitive method and the audio-lingual method. The learning groups chosen for the comparison were two parallel classes in their third year of English at a *Realschule* (seventh school year), both with the same teacher. The grammatical point being taught at the time the comparative examination was carried out was the restrictive relative clause with *who* or *that*. One class was taught and tested according to the cognitive method, by which the learners were made directly aware of the structure of sentences containing relative clauses. Deductive explanations were avoided by the teacher and German was partly used for purposes of explanation. The other class was taught and tested according to the audio-lingual method aimed at encouraging the learners to deduce the relevant rules themselves by means of extensive practice and avoidance of any direct explanation of these rules. Moreover, all teaching was conducted in English.

Progress tests were carefully constructed to measure rate of learning and retention

of information. The results of these tests showed that the audio-lingual method had no obvious or significant advantage over the cognitive method.

84-214 Morris, Susan. Dictation – a technique in need of reappraisal. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **37**, 2 (1983), 121–6.

Dictation is a neglected technique in training learners of a second language. Evidence of mistakes actually made by EFL learners on three dictations is used to support a plea for the reappraisal of this technique, both as a testing device, and, more importantly, as a learning activity through which students are encouraged to develop accuracy in both listening and writing.

84-215 Muchisky, Dennis M. (U. of New Mexico). Relationships between speech and reading among second-language learners. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **33**, 1 (1983), 77–102.

This paper describes the results of a short-term memory, reaction time study with students of English as a second language. Thirty-five foreign students at the University of New Mexico did a series of short-term memory tasks designed to determine if phonological encoding of visually presented verbal material occurred during reading. The memory tasks were done in two conditions: simple visual presentation of material (non-shadowing condition) and visual presentation of material accompanied by an oral repetition task (shadowing condition). A similar study done by Kleiman (1975) with native speakers of English showed that reaction times increased (slowed down) in the shadowing condition. In the present study the second language students' reaction times decreased (speeded up) in the shadowing condition. The explanation offered for this result is that the second language students in the non-shadowing condition show phonological interference from their native language which slows reaction times; however, the shadowing task which involves the oral production of English curtails the interference, thereby improving the reaction times. In addition to the short-term memory tasks, the students in the study took a reading proficiency test (the Nelson–Denny Reading Test). Correlations between the results of the memory task reaction times and reading proficiency scores showed few significant results.

84-216 Oller, John W., Jr. (U. of New Mexico). Story writing principles and ESL teaching. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 1 (1983), 39–53.

Four hypotheses about language use and language acquisition are discussed: (1) the textuality hypothesis, viz. that the elements of experience are organised into hierarchies of sequences and sub-sequences much the way a text is organised; (2) the expectancy hypothesis, viz. that discourse processing depends to a great extent on the correct anticipation of elements in sequence; (3) the input hypothesis, viz. that for language acquisition to occur, the student must have access to and must utilise comprehensible input, and (4) the episode hypothesis, viz. that texts (oral or written forms of discourse) which are more episodically organised can be stored and recalled more easily than less episodically organised material.

These four hypotheses are used to support the suggestion that story-telling techniques may be helpful in making ESL/EFL materials meaningful, comprehensible, recallable – in a word, learnable. Eleven principles are inferred, including respect for logic and causality, awareness of plans and goals, use of surprise-value to motivate learning, operating with facts or believable fictions, finding interesting characters, meaningful conflicts and material with action, asking questions, cutting up the story into small bites, and making multiple passes through the story.

84–217 Opitz, Kurt (Fachhochschule, Hamburg). Linguistics between artificiality and art: walking the tightrope of LSP research. *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel), **37** (1983), 8–20.

There are too many dimensions to the convenient term LSP (languages for special purposes) for it to have generated a unified set of rules and perspectives for researchers. Many assumptions in LSP research operate like powerful myths, such as that LSP differs as though generically from ordinary, 'standard' language, and that it can be equated with areas of technological application (even if this means allowing for several hundred varieties). It is doubtful whether any language act can be identified as consistently applied LSP. Another myth is the assumption that LSP is a matter of *standard* technical usage, and that it is more 'difficult' than non-specialist language, and therefore requires teaching. This hypothesis fails to distinguish between language as a system (rules) and specific language acts (implementation of rules): standardisation can be expected at the former level but not at the latter, where it can be affected by any of the sociolinguistic features like idiolects, code-switching, interference, etc.

Another myth is that LSP is a modern phenomenon, which has grown up in the present century, but it has been around for considerably longer; there has been a constant flow of material from the common language stock into specialised domains and vice versa. Most LSP research adopts a synchronous perspective, as though language features had no history; hence the quest for LSP universals and the belief in quantifying methods.

These myths, while not necessarily invalidating all the research that has been carried out, have prevented the growth of a unified perspective on LSP. Some problems which need recognising concern the 'uniqueness' of a text, which needs to be respected; 'authenticity' of 'mixed-media' texts (such as articles aimed both at specialists and the lay public) which force authors to adopt an interlanguage which is neither LSP nor the standard language; and 'user defects', i.e. norm-violations which contaminate the LSP sample (individual mistakes, omissions) but are never questioned by researchers.

Language is an indivisible whole: LSP cannot be filtered out by analysis. It can be thought of as waves on the sea's surface. LSP acts, or texts, are simply microforms of the larger phenomenon 'language'. Isolated consideration of the features of a text cannot account for its LSP status. It would be more meaningful to trace the interplay of the various elements within a given text, and to relate it as an entity to social and psychic motivations while enquiring into its behavioural features taking shape through the language used.

84–218 Palmer, Adrian (U. of Utah) and **Rodgers, Theodore, S.** (U. of Hawaii). Communicative and instructional considerations in language teaching. *Language Learning and Communication* (New York), 1, 3 (1982), 235–53.

A language-learning based model of communication is defined, beginning with a simple sender–receiver model, which is expanded to a six-feature model with reference to the literature on communication: the features are interaction, semantic unpredictability, purposiveness, contextuality, performance-basedness and relationship defining. This model is then used to clarify the differences in communicativity of a number of communicative language teaching games.

84–219 Pfeiffer, Waldemar (Adam Mickiewicz U., Poznań, Poland). Zur Rolle und Funktion audiovisueller Medien im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [The role and use of audio-visual aids in language teaching.] *Glottodidactica* (Poznań Poland), 15 (1982), 33–41.

Specific uses of audio-visual aids are listed in some detail, but the article concentrates on the four main, general uses: for motivational purposes, for conveying meaning and content, for providing opportunity for practice, and for creating ‘situations’ and transmitting cultural information. Audio-visual aids can be used for the same teaching purposes and aims at different levels of language, but exactly how they are used is determined largely by the teaching method being employed. Audio-visual aids do not stand alone but belong to a whole complex of teaching aids which includes the pupil’s textbook and the teacher’s book. The use of audio-visual aids in tertiary-level modern-language studies is also examined.

84–220 Puppel, Stanislaw (Adam Mickiewicz U., Poznań). Suprasegmental phonetics in teaching practical English to English majors: some comments. *Glottodidactica* (Poznań, Poland), 15 (1982), 83–9.

The article considers whether it is possible to devise programmed instruction for the suprasegmental features of a target language. Their significance in the mastery of the phonic substance of a foreign language is indisputable; their acquisition is thought to be difficult. Should the instruction of prosodic features be separate from, or integrated with, the teaching of the other components? The answer depends on the age of the learners: the older they are, the less their chances of mastering the phonic substance of the target language, and the more imperative it becomes to keep the sub-components clearly separate (at intermediate or advanced level), though not entirely divorced from syntax and semantics, since it is impossible to teach them successfully without reference to their meaning or function. Just as the child begins with basic segmental oppositions, completing them gradually until his inventory matches that of an adult, the same principle can be applied in teaching. Likewise with prosody, instruction should begin with the suprasegmentals superimposed on the shortest segmental sequences, proceeding gradually from word stress in monosyllables to sentences and rhythmic contours. In teaching intonation the same procedure can be followed: beginning with pitch changes within isolated syllables, then moving on

to the tone group and the distribution of intonation contours within the sentence or discourse.

In teaching prosody, consideration should be given to functions (demarcative, culminative and grammatical). Programming the teaching of phonic substances, so that the learner can acquire it without the teacher, is clearly out of the question since he cannot monitor his progress without help. [Outline programme for a course of English prosody.] Communicative exercises should yield better results than mechanical drills in this area, though both are useful.

84-221 Richards, Jack C. Communicative needs in foreign-language learning. *ELT Journal* (London), 37, 2 (1983), 111-20.

The first task in learning to communicate in a language is to learn how to create propositions, performing such operations as stating, affirming, denying or questioning as economically as possible using what partial knowledge of the target language the learner has. One strategy learners adopt is to 'bring propositions to the surface' by expressing meanings and intentions directly instead of indirectly. The ability to use such a simplified learner language is crucial in the first stages of foreign-language learning.

Communication largely consists of the use of language in conventional ways. There are constraints on lexical usage and on many features of discourse, such as conversational openers and routine formulae. Many of these conventionalised aspects of usage do not have to be 'acquired', but can be taught. The form of utterances must also take account of the speaker/hearer relationship and the setting. If foreign learners use a polite style they may be found over-formal. Textbooks need to give practice in performing speech acts with interlocutors of different ages, rank and social status. Much of what passes for communication is 'phatic communion' (e.g. verbal and visual gestures, formulaic utterances, awareness of when and when not to talk). These interactional skills are as essential to natural encounters as transactional skills, like ordering a meal. Communication consists of different genres of discourse: the speaker has to organise utterances in ways appropriate to the task, e.g. telling a story, having a conversation. EFL/ESL materials too often focus only on the finished products of communication, rather than on the processes by which people communicate.

84-222 Riley, Philip (CRAPEL). Topics in communicative methodology: including a preliminary and selective bibliography on the communicative approach. *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Paris), 1982, 92-122.

Relatively little systematic study has been made of the types of teaching/learning activities which favour the acquisition of communicative competence. CRAPEL has preferred an action-based approach to research into methodology, taking the problems of a particular group of learners as a starting point. The researchers are in direct contact with learners: there is no 'pure' research.

Authentic documents are an essential concomitant of the communicative approach, because they expose learners to examples of language use. Their use favours the development of individual learning strategies; they can meet individual needs if they

relate to the learner's area of interest; and they are motivating. The communicative approach has to be learner-centred since it aims to take into account the individual's personal and social identity. But autonomy involves profound changes in the roles of teacher and learner.

The negotiation of meaning is a vital part of the communicative approach, which must include three sets of socio-cultural rules: linguistic, situational and procedural. We need to find teaching/learning techniques for these which involve the genuine negotiation of meaning. Some essential characteristics are an element of doubt as to the development and outcome of the discourse; the discourse must be task- and purpose-based; and an exchange of information must occur during the discourse. [Bibliography, pp. 110–22.]

84–223 Rose, Mike (UCLA). Remedial writing courses: a critique and a proposal. *College English* (Urbana, Ill), **45, 2** (1983), 109–28.

Many remedial writing courses for college students may be limiting growth because they are unrelated to the wider academic environment; simple, personal, writing topics may not motivate and may not remove error once the student moves on to another, more demanding, topic. Syllabuses need to be developed which offer academically oriented topics, with difficulty systematically graded so as not to overwhelm the students.

Concern for error may unwittingly pass on an extremely restricted notion of what composing is. Writing is not merely 'framing a thought in correct language'. Remedial writing is often error-free but stunningly vapid. Evaluation should take account of the writer's intention and relation to audience as well as the product itself. [Suggestions for class assignments.]

We need to work out the organisational patterns required of students in academic discourse and slowly and systematically teach these patterns to them, by reading a great deal of discourse containing them, and by experiencing the need for them in trying to write. [Examples.]

84–224 Scholfield, Phil (University Coll. of N. Wales). Learning word meaning through explanation within English. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), **6, 2** (1982), 34–63.

Although 'telling someone the meaning' of a word is one step in the process of vocabulary teaching, it is also an everyday procedure performed by native speakers to each other, as a form of explanation, making something clearer. No clear-cut range of patterns is used by native speakers to expand the WME (word meaning explanation) function: the variables are (a) grammatical structure of the WME – they need not contain *means* or *be*, and need not even have a clear two-part structure; the choice of form depends on the grammatical characteristics of the word being explained; (b) lexical relations of the unknown word exploited in the WME, and (c) degree of specific reference of the WME.

The meaning of the word being explained must be the only 'unknown'. Grice's 'conversational maxims' can be applied to WMEs (maxims of Manner, Relation,

Quality and Quantity, interpreted respectively as Be brief and orderly, Be relevant, Tell the truth, and Be just as informative as required). Dictionary-style definitions of meaning are produced in ignorance of the specific context where the explainee has met the unknown word; a dictionary cannot know how much the explainee already knows, so some of the explanations may be redundant. Teachers can assess the importance of new words as they arise and assign them to be passed over minimally or carefully explained, as the need is, but explainees may not be told which kind of explanation they have been given.

Some WME discourses are examined to show that several interchanges may be required for the explainer and the learner to 'negotiate' an explanation that is pragmatically successful, a negotiation in which the explainee need not be entirely the passive participant.

The immediate value of a deeper understanding of WMEs is to help the teacher (i) to exploit the full range of methods available and (ii) to understand what makes an effective explanation. Their value to the learner is that they add to his store of communication strategies for the situation where he does not know a word for the meaning he is trying to express in speech or writing.

84–225 **Schwerdtfeger, Inge C.** Lesen im Fremdsprachenunterricht – 'Die vergessene 3. Fertigkeit'. [Reading in language learning – 'The forgotten third skill'.] *Linguistik und Didaktik* (Munich, FRG), **47/48** (1981), 173–82.

The meaning of reading has always been a moot point; it resists definition. It is, however, a communicative process: the writer has to make his intentions clear while the reader has to interpret the writer's text by means of various strategies. The psychological aspects of the reading process are still unclear, but we know that reading competence depends on many factors, e.g. interest. The aim of teaching reading in a foreign language is to equip the reader with strategies. Traditional-type reading texts with full glossaries are therefore criticised; they leave nothing to the reader's interpretation, as a text in his mother tongue would.

Text-types are suggested which can be used to encourage the learner to develop reading strategies which apply outside the classroom as well as inside. Traditional comprehension questions on reading texts are unrelated to practice; other ways in which learners can be brought to understand a text are put forward.

84–226 **Stockebrand, Matthias and Nadorf, Bernhard.** Unterrichtsschritte auf dem Weg zur selbstständig angefertigten Interpretation von erzählenden Texten. Erfahrungen bei der Behandlung narrativer Texte. [Steps in the training of students to interpret narrative texts independently. Experiences in the treatment and analysis of narrative texts.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart, FRG), **64** (1982), 295–305.

This article is based on a scheme for literary interpretation set out in *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts*, **2** (1979). Endeavouring to combine theory and practice, this contribution aims to show within the framework of a report how a class can be trained in independent interpretation of narrative texts within some two years. The

report is based on experiences with adult learners, but the didactic and methodological principles described can easily be applied in the context of the secondary school.

84–227 Swales, John (U. of Aston in Birmingham). Vocabulary work in LSP – a case of neglect? *Bulletin CILA* (Neuchâtel, Switzerland), **37** (1983), 21–33.

Most studies of LSP are language-centred in research and product-centred in their public expression. What is needed is learner- and process-centred vocabulary research. Simply producing an LSP reference work does not solve most of the vocabulary problems of that LSP group of learners. Vocabulary development receives unsatisfactory treatment in both the two major ESP enterprises of the '70s, the *Focus* series and *Reading and Thinking in English*, both of which give more attention to such things as anaphoric reference than to content vocabulary.

Most LSP learners have a capacity for mental organisation which should be utilised in lexical work. They also have insight into the cognitive and organisational structures on the subject for which they are learning a foreign language. Acquisition can be aided by presenting the learners with problems of various kinds. Technical or semi-technical vocabulary can be learned more successfully if it can be shown to have an immediate communicative purpose. There is a case for assigning a more creative role to learners so that they are directly engaged in analysing and classifying tasks [examples].

84–228 Taylor, Barry P. (U. of Pennsylvania). Teaching ESL: incorporating a communicative, student-centred component. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 1 (1983), 69–88.

[Brief review of research which supports incorporating a strong communicative component in language teaching.] Five features of real communication which should be applied to the development of a communicative methodology are: (1) dealing with stretches of spontaneous language above the sentence level, (2) bridging an information gap, (3) handling choice and uncertainty, (4) completion of some kind of task, and (5) attending to many factors quickly and at the same time.

It is essential that the classroom atmosphere is one in which communication is possible: making the classes student-centred helps to create such an atmosphere. The content must engage the learner: task-oriented activities focus on issues that are relevant and meaningful to the participants. The teacher's role is to assume the responsibility for setting up the conditions for communication to take place. Activities might include goal- or task-oriented group projects, logical problem-solving, information-gathering, and task-oriented communication with invited native-speaker 'guests'. Two pedagogical techniques designed to create information gaps are the 'jigsaw' and 'task dependency' principles.

As far as the role of explicit grammar teaching is concerned, since all the students are unlikely to be at the same learning stage at the same time, a sequenced presentation of grammar may not meet their needs. When an explanation of a new linguistic form is offered at a time when it fulfils a real communicative need, learners can recognise its immediate utility. Grammar can be offered as an optional supplement for those students who can profit from it. Counselling-Learning/Community Language

Learning deals with explicit grammar teaching in this way. Significantly, the students motivate themselves to learn the rules.

84–229 Wagner, Michael J. and Tilney, Germaine. The effect of 'Superlearning techniques' on the vocabulary acquisition and alpha brainwave production of language learners. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **17**, 1 (1983), 15–17.

This study investigates the applicability of techniques adapted from Lozanov's 'Suggestopedia', described in Ostrander and Schroeder, *Superlearning* (1979). Lack of scientific validity in experiments substantiating claims about Suggestology as cited in Scovel's review of Lozanov's Suggestology and outlines of Suggestopedya, prompted this investigation. While using relaxation tapes manufactured by Superlearning, Inc., Superlearning methodology, and an electroencephalograph to measure brainwave activity during Superlearning sessions, 21 adult intensive English students, language teachers, and graduate music education students were taught a discrete 300-word German language vocabulary list over a five-week period, both with Baroque music ($n = 7$) and without Baroque music ($n = 7$). A non-contact control group ($n = 7$) learned the same vocabulary by 'traditional' methods using a teacher in a classroom setting.

Analysis of language acquisition data revealed no significant improvement across the five-week experimental period. Also, no significant drop in scores across the experimental period suggests that vocabulary was retained in all groups. When modes of presentation were compared, those taught by a traditional classroom method learned significantly more vocabulary than those taught by Superlearning techniques. Left-hemisphere monitoring of brainwaves showed no significant changes in alpha brainwave rhythms across the experimental period in any group. There was no significant increase in alpha activity during relaxation sessions or during language presentation sessions in the areas of the brain which were monitored. Although scrupulous care to preserve 'Superlearning' methodology was taken in this investigation, accelerated learning could not be substantiated.

84–230 Wilkinson, Jeffrey (Newman Coll., Birmingham). Children's writing: composing or decomposing? *Nottingham Linguistic Circular* (Nottingham), **10**, 1 (1981) [publ. 1983], 72–108.

Writing is mainly used by teachers for the purposes of assessing a 'completed' activity, with little consideration given to the learning involved during the act of writing itself. The transition from speech to writing is one of increasing explicitness. Pupils need to be able to 'think in writing'. Most of the research which attempts to describe children's writing concentrates on the syntactic development of language use, such as increase in the percentage of subordinate predicates used, usually discovering that as a child grows older, his language grows more 'complex'. This limited view is reflected in textbooks which specifically try to develop such structures in children. Other work considers the function of language rather than its structure, but this approach produces somewhat vague labelling ('expressive', 'transactional',

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'poetic'). Both form and function and their inter-relationship need to be considered.

Narrative is a very common form of writing in primary schools, particularly the story. Here two examples of 'personal' writing by girls aged 7 and 9 are considered in relation to various linguistic 'frames', such as Hunt's T-units (the shortest units into which a piece of discourse can be cut without leaving any sentence fragments as residue). Grammatical structures of the texts, particularly when related to the 'communicative context' in which they were written, can be much more useful, e.g. kinds of subordination, reported clauses, direct speech. What is needed is an awareness of what is happening both below and above sentence level, which can be found in the child's narrative technique (how he organises the recounting of his experiences): the matching of narrative sequence to events in time, and cohesive ties in textual organisation. Discourse analysis offers a possible framework for describing textual organisation in terms of type of event, role of participant, common orientation, settings, background, evaluation, collateral; narratives feature a 'peak' or 'climax'.