

Language learning and teaching – theory and practice

THEORY AND PRINCIPLES

83–124 Dufeu, Bernard. Vers une pédagogie de l'être: la pédagogie relationnelle. [Towards a pedagogy of the individual: relational pedagogics.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **81**, 3 (1982), 267–89.

'Relational' pedagogics attempts to place foreign-language acquisition in the context of the individual's general development. It is oriented towards the person in his totality: body, affections and intellect. It centres around the participant and the group. The life of the individual in the group and the life of the group determine the themes. The main goal of relational pedagogics is to develop the capabilities, skills attitudes and ways of behaving which are important to situating one's self and expressing one's self in the target language. The linguistic material is acquired through action by the development of these capabilities.

83–125 Firges, Jean and Melenk, Hartmut. Landeskunde als Alltagswissen. [Regional studies as everyday knowledge.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **29**, 2 (1982), 115–23.

The pupil learning a foreign language in school does not regard that foreign language as an expression and objectivisation of a different culture. He sees it merely in terms of his own culture. Yet the very vocabulary, idioms and texts of the target language do implicitly – albeit subtly – provide information about the country in question. The pupil should be brought to an awareness of this fact.

Themes of immediate concern to the ordinary individual (such as the family, living conditions, etc.) must be the starting point for any course – and can lead ultimately to more specialised knowledge. The aim of the course should be to lead the pupil to an understanding of the code of values and the general knowledge shared by members of the culture under scrutiny. This can be gleaned from well chosen texts (newspaper articles are particularly useful here). The use of stereotypes is unavoidable, but, as long as the pupil continues to acquire different perspectives, will not prejudice his mind. It is essential for a school exchange to be built into this heuristic approach to language teaching.

83–126 Genzlinger, Werner. Autonome Kooperation und gesteuertes Lernen in Englischunterricht. [Autonomous and directed learning in the teaching of English.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **81**, 3 (1982), 257–67.

The process of learning can be influenced by direct and indirect impulses initiated by the language teacher. Indirect impulses promote more productive and spontaneous efforts on behalf of the students than direct impulses. The application of either strategy depends on the changing domains of the teaching and learning process. The

language teacher must take care to establish the adequate strategy in the specific pedagogical setting. Methods for the learning of language functions, of language notions, of study skills, of efficiency control mechanisms and of classroom and outdoor activities imply certain forms of social learning, such as individual instruction, co-operative initiatives and creative training. Taxonomies of any kind should not impede or destroy the students' creative problem-solving, discovery learning and trial-and-error-experiments.

83–127 Gröschel, Bernhard (U. of Münster). Mündliche und schriftliche Kommunikation – Autonomie und Wechselbeziehungen in Sprachlernprozessen. [Oral and written communication – autonomy and correlations in language-learning processes.] *Folia Linguistica* (The Hague), **13**, 3/4 (1979) [publ. 1981], 291–302.

Written and spoken language are essentially autonomous, though there are extensive correlations between them; we must postulate accordingly separate grammars for them. Arguments in support of this thesis are that foreign-language learners commonly have an excellent passive command of the written language but are unable to produce spoken utterances; that reading/writing does not require a greater mental effort than speaking/listening, so there can be no recoding process involved; reading speed is greater than listening capacity; many structures are learnt from the written language alone, e.g. the French past historic (*donna*). In spoken and written language the signs, their quantity and their combination, are different. The dominant association of the spoken word with the written word in native-language learning, and of the written word with the spoken word (visualisation) in foreign-language learning, has implications for language teaching.

83–128 Guerrero-Quinsac, R.M. (U. of Toulouse-Le Mirail.) Plaidoyer pour l'imaginaire. [A plea for creativity.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **61**, 3 (1982), 115–26.

Creativity has been variously defined as: the capacity to imagine, invent, discover; flexibility, originality; the ability to dissociate and separate connected elements and to connect and link disparate elements; or (for the linguist) 'the speaker's ability to form new sentences by applying the basic rules of the language system'. Creativity and imagination have their place both in the way we teach and in the learners' motivation. Small groups where there is a relaxed, happy atmosphere free from hierarchies and negative criticism favour creativity. The teacher's role is not to 'inform' but to 'reveal' and to make the students aware of the creative capacity within them. Teaching creativity is not a matter of improvisation; careful and thorough preparation is required.

83–129 Gueunier, Nicole. (U. François Rabelais, Tours). Linguistique et normes. [Linguistics and norms.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **169** (1982), 17–25.

Two concepts of the norm can be distinguished. There is the objective or linguistic norm which is essentially statistical, descriptive and non-interventionist. No value of judgements are implied and it is natural to distinguish various different norms within the same linguistic community. The precriptive norm, however, is directly related to the desire to regulate or standardise. From here it is a small step in practice to the subjective norm, individual value judgements concerning language.

Current trends in foreign-language teaching owe much to interdisciplinary research into linguistic norms. Different norms are not mere optional variants nor can they be taught without reference to the underlying linguistic system. However, teachers and taught alike need to be aware of the great diversity of linguistic norms which make language a living thing.

83–130 Malmberg, Bertil (U. of Lund). Applied linguistics: past, present and future. *Studia Linguistica* (Lund, Sweden), **35**, 1/2 (1981), 7–14.

Linguistic theory and the principles governing its application are intimately related. Throughout the twentieth century pedagogical technique has followed any changes in teaching principles thus remaining closely connected with variations in linguistic theory. Examples are cited in support of this view, e.g. the impact of Saussurean structuralism, of work on prosody and dialectology. Linguistic research can have a bearing on the numerous practical problems involved in language teaching, audiology and other domains while practical applications can often yield useful contributions to linguistic theory.

83–131 Poirier, Francois and Rosslin, Mary (U. of Paris). Civiliser l'enseignement. [Civilising teaching.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **76**, 2 (1982), 177–88.

Can 'civilisation' be taught, and if so, how is it to be done? The undertaking carries risks: being out of date, seeing the foreign country as its ruling class would like it to be seen, or, alternatively, being unduly influenced by one's own viewpoint. The subject is not a unified, coherent discipline; attempts to devise an organisational framework have been artificial; teachers need training. However, interest in the foreign country strongly motivates pupils, language must have a content and course books have always, whether consciously or not, presented a picture of the foreign country. A detailed analysis of course books for the teaching of English in France from the 18th century to the present day shows how the portrayal of British society, after passing through various stereotypes, has become more differentiated. The extensive documentation available today enables pupils to make their own investigations and correct easy generalisations.

83–132 Schröder, Konrad. Quousque Tandem in memoriam. [In memory of Quousque Tandem.] *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **81**, 2 (1982), 115–20.

In 1882, under the pseudonym 'Quousque Tandem', one of the editors of the first volumes of *Die neueren Sprachen*, Wilhelm Viëtor, wrote a controversial work called *Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren!* ['Language teaching must change direction!'] which had long-lasting and far-reaching repercussions on modern-language teaching. His ideas, many of which were of a general and interdisciplinary nature, were taken up and expanded by H. Breymann.

Viëtor was first to acknowledge the indivisibility of specialised research in a particular field and the methods of teaching about this field. He recommended that the teaching of modern languages at university and school level be planned together as an integrated whole and he spoke up for professional teacher training. He based his theories on many years' teaching experience at various levels.

Modern language teaching in nineteenth century Germany up to the point of these first calls for reform is surveyed: Viëtor was a man ahead of his time. Unlike his contemporaries, Viëtor thought that being able to speak a foreign language was of prime importance. Breymann echoed this, and suggested that the student visit the foreign country in question.

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

83–133 Apelt, Walter. Über individuelle Leistungsdispositionen im Fremdsprachenlernproze. [Individual learning dispositions in foreign-language learning.] *Fremdsprachenunterricht* (Berlin), **26**, 2/3 (1982), 98–104.

To arrive at a method of teaching which is unified and yet differentiated according to the individual, it is essential to recognise and take account of individual learning dispositions. With regard to language acquisition, these are determined not only by genetic factors, but also by linguistic and social factors. These determining factors are discussed in the light of their relation to the difficulties inevitably experienced in foreign-language learning. The learning dispositions so far identified and suggestions of ways to cater for them in the classroom are set out under the following headings: readiness and ability to assimilate the unfamiliar; adaptability and flexibility; auditive receptiveness and ability to distinguish sounds; a musical ear; auditive, mechanical-associative, operative-linguistic, and visual memory; grammatical understanding.

83–134 Cook, V. J. (U. of Essex). Second-language acquisition from an interactionist viewpoint. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), **6**, 1 (1981/2), 93–111.

Interactionism is a position which gives equal weight to both the learner and the situation. An individual's learning depends upon the interaction between the different aspects of his mental make-up and the different aspects of the situation. In psychology,

interactionism is associated with Lewin's formula $B = F(P, S)$, i.e. behaviour (B) is a function (F) of the person (P) and the situation (S). Four axioms of Endler and Magnusson are related to second-language learning; they relate to the continuous nature of the interactional process, the power of the individual as an 'intentional active agent', the importance of cognitive factors as the essential determinants of behaviour, and on the situation side, the importance of the psychological meaning of the situation for the individual.

Three current models in second-language research are considered from an interactionist viewpoint: (1) the Monitor Model – the learner's use of the Monitor depends upon an interaction between the learner and the situation, but evidence is hard to supply for the nature of Monitoring itself, rather than the complex interactions involved. (2) The Acculturation Model – 'the social and psychological integration of the learner and the target group is the main cause of success or failure in second-language learning'. While it may well prove to be relevant to contact situations between host and migrant communities, it has little obvious relevance to other situations, e.g. the second-language learning of English. The model also fails to characterise the behaviour which is produced by the interaction. (3) Conversational analysis describes ways of constructing conversations; it insists on the centrality of the learner's individual strategies without stressing the interaction of learner and situation.

It is concluded that none of these models is adequate for describing both sides of the interaction and the intervening behaviour. An experiment by the author tested the interaction between a goal and situation, and showed that there was indeed variation in the realisation of the language function according to age but not sex.

83–135 De Houwer, Annick (Free U. of Brussels). Second language acquisition: a survey of recent literature. *ITL* (Louvain), **55** (1982), 39–68.

When a child comes into contact with two languages before its third birthday, we can speak of simultaneous (La/Lb) acquisition: when a child encounters a second language after the age of three we can speak of successive (L2 after L1) acquisition. The main areas of research on second-language acquisition are (1) the sequence of development of the two languages, (2) interference between L1 and L2 and (3) code-switching.

The critical period hypothesis is discussed and it is concluded that the biological argument for it is no longer satisfactory. The difference between language acquisition and language learning is based on the nature of the contact the individual has with the language [discussion of similarities/differences between adults and children in learning languages]. Research on the simultaneous acquisition of two languages, La/Lb, is limited, but there seems to be, first, a mixed-language stage and then from the second birthday the two languages are differentiated. The 'one person, one language' rule is important.

There are two main hypotheses about successive acquisition of two languages. L2 after L1: (a) the contrastive analysis hypothesis (acquisition of L2 entirely determined by L1; interference from L1), and (b) that in L2 acquisition the same strategies are used as in L1. Research on the organisation of a bilingual's two languages is briefly

reviewed. In studying the effects of bilingualism, it is difficult to ascertain that one is not studying anything else, i.e. intelligence, success at school, emotional adjustment or cognition.

83–136 Kayfetz, Janet L. (U. of California). Natural sequences in speech and writing in adult second-language acquisition. *System* (Oxford), **10**, 2 (1982), 145–57.

The intent of this study was to see whether second-language acquirers would correct their production on a carefully constructed written test. The SLOPE Test was administered twice to 80 adult students of ESL in the United States, once with responses given orally and once with responses given in writing. It was hypothesised that the order and accuracy of the grammatical structures on the written test would be different from that on the oral test, with the written order reflecting the application of conscious grammatical rules. However, a single order of acquisition of the structures was obtained. This result suggests the hypothesis that a discrete-point grammar test is necessary to encourage extensive use of the conscious grammar for most individuals. This being the case, it is further suggested that we evaluate the emphasis placed on grammar teaching and learning, and adjust our philosophy and practice to reflect the importance of natural communication in adult second-language acquisition.

83–137 Klann-Delius, Gisela (Max-Planck Inst. für Psycholinguistik, Nijmegen). Sex and language acquisition – is there any influence? *Journal of Pragmatics* (Amsterdam), **5**, 1 (1981), 1–25.

The empirical evidence is examined in support of the widely acknowledged stereotype that women and girls speak better than men and boys, restricting the analysis to its developmental psycholinguistic aspect. Having reported on current empirical findings on sex differences in the phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic dimensions of language acquisition, the methodological status of current empirical analyses is discussed (which, on the whole, did not find any sex differences except within the domain of semantic and pragmatic language learning). The topic of sex differences in language acquisition is then treated under the question of whether and where sex differences are theoretically to be expected. In this context, the theoretical contributions of biology, of Piagetian cognitive psychology, and socialisation theory are examined. The evaluation of empirical research and hypotheses about the influence of sex on language acquisition, derived from these theories, then leads to the following hypotheses about language learning in girls and boys: (1) There is a sex difference in language learning; however, sex differences are not to be expected in all areas of language acquisition, but most likely only in the semantic-pragmatic domain. (2) The influence of sex on language acquisition has to be seen as causing differences and not deficits. (3) This crucial distinction between differences and deficits in language learning has not been made in previous empirical research, which is one explanation of their not being too successful. (4) Conceiving of sex and language acquisition in terms of difference rather than of deficit should be a productive guideline for further

empirical research in a branch of psycholinguistics that is in dire need of being developed.

83–138 Oxford, Rebecca L. Research on language loss: a review with implications for foreign-language teaching. *Modern Language Journal* (Madison, Wis), **66** (1982), 160–9.

‘Language loss’ refers to loss or attrition of skill in one’s native language (L1) or a second or foreign language (L2). It can be exhibited by a cultural or linguistic group or by an individual, and can be analysed in terms of rate, sequence, linguistic components or skill types. This article reviews studies on loss in its individual rather than its group form, on L1 rather than L2 loss. Studies are divided into (1) optimal age for foreign-language learning – if one or more ‘critical periods’ exist, we might expect loss to occur more easily if the target language were learned after the critical period had passed; (2) cognitive aspects of language loss – attitudes and motivation are vital; and (3) attitudes towards language learning, maintenance and loss. Limitations of existing research on language loss are discussed under the issues of research design, instrumentation, and research co-ordination. Greater creativity and technical skill in the design of research is needed. Using stronger experimental designs, improving case studies through triangulation, and conducting longitudinal studies would help. Research on language loss may be able to tell teachers about long-term effects of their teaching, i.e. what types of individuals lose what kinds of L2 skills in what length of time and under what conditions.

CONTRASTIVE/ERROR ANALYSIS

83–139 Jackson, Howard (City of Birmingham Poly.). Errors of Punjabi learners of English: a comparison of the grammars of Punjabi and English. *ITL* (Louvain), **55** (1982), 69–91.

The grammatical structures of Punjabi and English are compared and the differences noted, with the aim of helping Punjabi speakers learning English. Possible errors are discussed that could arise on account of the differences, and compared with actually occurring errors. Thus the predictive and explanatory aims of contrastive analysis are combined. The description is divided into three sections: clause, phrase, and word. The grammatical terminology used is fairly traditional.

83–140 Morrissey, Michael D. (U. of Kassel). Learners’ errors and linguistic description. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **54**, 4 (1981), 277–94.

A corpus of errors produced by advanced German students of English is discussed with particular reference to grammatical problems involving determiners, adjectives as head nouns, possessive and genitive constructions, quantifiers, demonstratives, other noun modifiers, noun clauses, tense and aspect, adjective postmodifiers and negation. Learners’ errors are as good a data source for the descriptive linguist as they are for the psycholinguist because grammatical rules can be evaluated by their

usefulness to the student in explaining and preventing errors and because entirely new rules may result from their examination.

83–141 Stein, D. (U. of Heidelberg). Zur Satzkonnektion im Englischen und Deutschen: Ein Beitrag zu einer kontrastiven Vertextungslinguistik. [On sentence connection in English and German: a contribution to contrastive text linguistics.] *Folia Linguistica* (The Hague), **13**, 3/4 (1979) [publ. 1981], 303–19.

Examples are given of authentic English texts whose translation into German requires explicit logical connectors, but which in English have none (except for parataxis). The 'adversatives' *vielmehr, sondern, zwar...aber, doch*, the 'additives' *so, auch, auch nicht, aber auch nicht*, and the use of the anaphoric definite article in English where German has the demonstrative pronoun, as in *The thought.../Dieser Gedanke...* are all covered. English tends to have 'general purpose links', e.g. the *-ing* form, whereas German has a special expression for each cohesive function; there are both fewer connectors in the English lexicon than in German, and they are used less.

TESTING

83–142 Bachman, Lyle F. (U. of Illinois). The trait structure of cloze test scores. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 61–70.

Although there is considerable evidence supporting the predictive validity of cloze tests, recent research into the construct validity of cloze tests has produced differing results. Chihara *et al.* (1977) concluded that cloze tests are sensitive to discourse constraints across sentences, while Alderson (1979) concluded that cloze tests measure only lower-order skills. Anderson (1980) has concluded that cloze tests measure sensitivity to both cohesive relationships and sentence-level syntax. Factor analytic studies (Weaver & Kingston, 1963; Ohnmacht *et al.*, 1970) have identified several factors in cloze and other language tests and suggest that cloze deletions should be based on the linguistic and coherence structures of language.

In the present study, the trait structure of a cloze test was examined using confirmatory factor analysis. A cloze passage with rationally selected deletions of syntactic and cohesive items was constructed and given to two groups of non-native English-speaking students entering the University of Illinois. A trait structure with three specific traits and one general trait provided the best explanation of the data. The results suggest that a modified cloze passage, using rational deletions, is capable of measuring both syntactic and discourse level relationships in a text, and that this advantage may outweigh considerations of reduced redundancy which underlie random deletion procedures.

83-143 de Jong, John. Luistertoetsen moderne vreemde talen: nieuwe mogelijkheden. [Listening tests for modern languages: some new possibilities.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **368** (1982), 12-26.

This article describes the types of listening test currently being produced by CITO (the Central Institute for Test Development) in the Netherlands, and discusses their shortcomings. CITO have recently been experimenting with two new types of test: a short passage followed by a true/false question; and a gap-filling test, where a word or phrase is deleted from a record passage, and the testee is required to say which of two alternative answers fits the gap. Potential users seem on the whole to like these tests, and preliminary validation shows that the tests discriminate well between native speakers of English and Dutch learners of English. Some problems with the true/false tests are discussed, but CITO will be incorporating gap-filling items into their language tests in the near future.

83-144 Farhady, Hossein. Measures of language proficiency from the learner's perspective. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 51-9.

This paper examines the importance of learner characteristics in relationship to learner performance on ESL tests. Test taker characteristics are not included in the design of most ESL tests. Empirical evidence is provided to support the hypothesis that performance on various ESL tests is closely related to test takers' educational and language backgrounds. In order to account for these factors and thus decrease test bias, the theoretical definition of language proficiency should be modified. Some guidelines to dealing with test taker characteristics are suggested concerning (1) psychometric factors (improving the correspondence between test items and instructional objectives), (2) typologic factors (different types of test need clearer item specification, and programmes need clearer instructional objectives), and (3) learner factors - adjustment formulas are needed in the short term to account for learner variables, and in the long term, analysis of learner needs, establishment of instructional objectives, then a two-phase testing programme to assess, first, 'base level' English, then proficiency in various academic areas.

83-145 Harrison, Andrew. Student-centred testing: assessing communication in progress. *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **372** (1982), 401-10.

Teaching procedures and assessment procedures depend on each other. A coherent method of language teaching makes assumptions about a theory of learning and these are reflected in its test procedures. A communicative approach to teaching and learning assumes that the most important principle for deciding what should be learnt is the use of language in realistic contexts. But a test is always to some extent a simulation. There needs to be enough control over the content for necessary comparisons to be made. The assessment of communication starts with an information gap which needs to be bridged - a puzzle strategy is a possible alternative for the early stages of language learning. The kind of problem which can be set for assessing communication has to be suitable for solving with language, the right level of language use, the right

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interest for students, relevant to language needs and generalisable to other situations. The selection of means for any assessment is guided by the following criteria: how to set limits to the permissible language (translation, closed set of responses), appropriateness, tolerance of error (until it prevents communication), the analysis of minimum essentials of communication (based on competent performances by fluent speakers). Marking could be done on the basis of credit for 'communication' plus credit for 'correctness' when communication has been achieved. The performance of each student can then build up into a series of achievements, interlocked in a sequence but not necessarily interdependent. This kind of assessment system has considerable flexibility; it can be applied to different contents and used for different purposes.

83-146 Hughes, Arthur (U. of Reading). Conversational cloze. *Studi Italiani di Linguistica Teorica ed Applicata* (Rome), 9, 2 (1980), 167-78.

Cloze tests are usually used to measure overall ability in a second or foreign language. Research is described in their use to measure a particular language skill, oral ability, testing the hypothesis that a cloze test based on a recorded conversation between native speakers of English would be superior to a cloze test based on a prose passage as a predictor of EFL students' ability to take part in conversation or discussion in English. Validation was against teachers' ratings of their students in this skill.

A stretch of conversation was recorded and transcribed and every seventh word deleted. There were obvious differences from formal prose style – contractions, hesitations, references to familiar institutions. Subjects were 64 overseas students of various linguistic backgrounds on pre-sessional English courses at the University of Reading. Both the conversational and the prose cloze test were scored by the exact word method. Native speakers' responses to the conversational cloze were used as the basis of decisions on acceptability of responses. Results showed that conversational cloze was consistently superior to prose cloze as a measure of oral ability.

83-147 Klein-Braley, Christine. Die Übersetzung als Testverfahren in der Staatsprüfung für Lehramtskandidaten. [Translation as a test-form in the state examination for prospective teachers.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), 35, 2 (1982), 94-7.

Translation is still the most widely used means of testing the language abilities of finals students aiming to teach. The author questions and discusses whether a translation test meets the accepted criteria for a good objective test, whether it can really be a valid test of language ability and one appropriate for a future teacher, and whether one's mastering of a language automatically means that one is a good translator. The level of difficulty of texts used for finals translations seems inadequately defined and varies from semester to semester and university to university. Also, it is not clear how freely one should translate and individual examiners have different views on the matter. Some penetrating questions are posed as to exactly how certain mistakes should be assessed.

A comparative table is given showing the results of 26 students in two translation

tests taken four weeks apart and marked by the same native-speaker team according to a firmly established marking scheme. The results demonstrate how texts ostensibly parallel in terms of difficulty do not produce the consistent improvement which might be expected. Other methods of testing final students' language abilities should be investigated.

83-148 Modu, Christopher C. and Weeks, C. Andrew (Educational Testing Service). The validity of the multiple choice section of the Advanced Placement German language examination. *Unterrichtspraxis* (Philadelphia, Pa), **15**, 1 (1982), 116-26.

The Advanced Placement (AP) courses and examinations of the College Board permit college placement and credits to be given for work done at high school. A new AP German programme given in 1979 emphasises 'use of the language for active communication' rather than, as formerly, for the study of literary texts. As a mediator of college credit, the programme depends on the AP German Language Examination, which must provide an adequate measure of the knowledge and achievement required by second- and third-year college German courses. Validity will mean the examination (a) tests the kinds of knowledge and (b) requires roughly the same level of skill as do the college courses. A study was carried out to check this by comparing performances of AP candidates with those of college students, using a condensed version of the multiple-choice section of the examination. [Test design and administration.] Results showed that the AP examination was as strict or stricter than college course ratings. It was appropriate for the AP candidates, slightly difficult for third-year students and decidedly difficult for second-year students. There were significant statistical relationships between the college students' examination scores and their instructors' ratings of their course performances.

CURRICULUM PLANNING

83-149 Piepho, Hans-Eberhard. Richtlinien als didaktisches Konzept. [Guidelines as statements of teaching principles.] *Der fremdsprachliche Unterricht* (Stuttgart, FRG), **60** (1981), 254-7. **Plettendorff, Heribert.** Richtlinien als Direktiven und Empfehlungen. [Guidelines as directives and recommendations.] *Ibid.*, 257-62.

In 1980, the *Land Hessen* published guidelines on language teaching. Piepho considers the function of guidelines. The educational reality they portray and the principles they proclaim must match up with those of teachers, if they are to be effective and lead to concrete action. Guidelines have an enabling function in as much as they leave room for decisions to pupils, teachers and parents, but also a binding function as they specify principles, standards and qualifications at various levels, thus ensuring compatibility. The definition of learning objectives in relation to pupils' experience, ability and needs is more important than statements of knowledge to be acquired.

Plettendorff considers first the justifications for guidelines and the limits on them.

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In a democratic society the school has a duty to educate pupils within society's system of values and the state has consequently the right to issue guidelines. The details, however, should be worked out with professional associations, teachers, pupils and parents. A second reason is the need for comparability; all *Länder* have agreed on appropriate language tests for the *Abitur*. Thirdly, pupils and parents are entitled to know precisely what is expected.

The ability to communicate in the four skills and a perception of another culture are generally agreed learning aims. Guidelines should specify a lexical and grammatical syllabus and minimum standards related to the length of the course. In the higher classes, words and constructions needed for text analysis are indispensable, but the choice of literary texts and aspects of foreign culture should be left to the teacher. Objectives in the various skills and techniques need to be defined; comparability between tests is necessary and the relative weight of content and language should be stated, but evaluation criteria are more important than quotients of errors. Finally, guidelines should state fundamental and agreed principles of methodology, offering suggestions rather than directives.

83–150 Ullmann, Rebecca (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). A broadened curriculum framework for second languages. *ELT Journal* (London), **36**, 4 (1982), 255–62.

Recently there has been a renewed interest in curricula for second languages. However, the various proposals which have been made have remained within the linguistic domain. The underlying assumption, which equates curriculum content with the language syllabus, has remained unchallenged in current discussion of communicative teaching. The language syllabus continues to predominate in the conceptualisation of a framework for the second language curriculum.

This paper suggests an alternative curriculum conceptualisation for second languages: a multi-dimensional curriculum framework. The content of the curriculum is expressed in terms of four syllabuses, which cover language, communicative activities, culture, and general language education respectively. These are first characterised differentially by objectives of proficiency, knowledge, affect, and transfer. Then the general characteristics of each syllabus are described, the relationship of syllabus content and objectives is explored, and certain appropriate teaching strategies are suggested.

COURSE/MATERIALS DESIGN

83–151 Buttjes, Dieter. Medien und Landeskunde. Zur Doppelfunktion der Medien im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [Media and regional studies. The double function of the media in foreign-language teaching.] *Praxis* (Dortmund), **29**, 2 (1982), 144–55.

The media as used in foreign-language teaching have a double function in that they are both the source of regional studies learning as well as the means of teaching it.

Improvements need to be made in both areas, and the shortcomings of the existing material are discussed, in particular the tendency to use texts which are too intellectual and abstract in both subject matter and manner of treatment; to reduce national character to the level of stereotype and to personalise history and politics; to use a Eurocentric perspective and to select texts on too random a basis. The author recommends the adoption of a perspective from within the target country and criticises existing material for examining the foreign culture with the eyes of an outsider. The use of primary sources is to be preferred to secondary sources and non-fictional texts, containing authentic interviews, to fictional texts.

83–152 Frydenberg, Gro (Eastern Michigan U.). Designing an ESP reading skills course. *ELT Journal* (London), **36**, 3 (1982), 156–63.

This article delineates a step-by-step procedure for designing an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) reading skills course for a group of students whose interests and academic pursuits are similar. Throughout the article the example of the author's ESP course for students in the 'soft-science' field of education is used to illustrate the process. It is contended that the main differences between a regular ESL reading skills course and this type of ESP course are: (1) the use of authentic, non-simplified, directly relevant texts in their field of specialisation, and (2) a focusing on the students' immediate reading needs.

83–153 Kenji Kitao (Doshisha, U., Japan). Developing reading materials for teaching American culture in English courses. *English Teaching* (Korea), **24** (1982), 211–22.

Surveys of Japanese university and high-school students in the United States showed that neither group had been taught enough about American culture and this prevented them from communicating adequately with Americans. Textbooks were analysed and found to be linguistically rather than culturally orientated. The test of American Culture was administered to 200 Japanese students, 40 of whom were in the USA. Understanding of cultural items was poor, particularly of areas such as newspapers, TV and films, time, transport, the economy, religion, social customs and value systems.

The teaching of culture improves motivation by making language study more meaningful and alive, promotes positive attitudes towards people of a different culture and improves students' all-round education. Reading texts were developed for Japanese college students with the aim of (a) providing information about the USA, (b) interesting them in reading English, (c) helping them improve their reading skills and (d) exposing them to a variety of literary forms. Visual aids feature prominently to help understanding and make reading selections more real. Experience-based activities such as pancake-making are featured, also role-play and songs.

83–154 Lynch, Anthony J. (U. of Edinburgh). 'Authenticity' in language teaching: some implications for the design of listening materials. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **20**, 1 (1982), 9–16.

Concern with authenticity probably stems in part from one of the crucial objectives of ethnography, namely elicitation and description of pure data of linguistic interaction, and is also a consequence of the application of sociolinguistic approaches to language as interaction: 'no text without context'. Too many pedagogic texts are over-simplified 'structure speech', or language contrived for demonstration purposes. The desire for authenticity may also be a reaction to syntactic linguistics, language seen as form and pattern rather than as interactive behaviour.

'Genuine' and 'authentic' are differentiated: 'genuineness' is a feature intrinsic to the text (i.e. conforming to the conventions of that type of discourse) while 'authenticity' has to do with an appropriate response to the discourse, when the reader recognises and acts upon the communicative intent of the writer. Authenticity is therefore the end: the pedagogic means to that end can be contrived or not.

Illustrations are given of language-teaching materials which aim to guide students to an authentic response, particularly self-access listening-centre materials for a wide range of students. Three types of listening activity are presented: location and exploitation of highly detailed information (weather forecasts); formulation of expectations followed by their confirmation/rejection from aural data ('Any Questions'); matching of spoken information and associated printed texts (radio extracts).

TEACHER TRAINING

83–155 Brumfit, Christopher (U. of London Inst. of Ed.) **and Rossner, Richard** (Inst. Anglo-Mexicano de Cultura, UK). The 'decision pyramid' and teacher training for ELT. *ELT Journal* (London), **36**, 4 (1982), 226–31.

A hierarchy is proposed as an aid to conceptualising the development and use of abilities in teaching, based on Maslow's hierarchy of motivational needs (lower-order needs must be met before the full force of motivation can be stimulated). The pyramid has 'approach' at the top, then 'syllabus design' below, with 'materials construction' below that and 'classroom decisions' at the bottom. The pyramid shape relates both to quality and influence: higher decisions can only be made on the foundation of lower ones; there are relatively few broad approaches, while the range of materials is enormous. An awareness of the relationship between the different levels of decision-making is vital. The content of teacher-training courses would be drawn from all four levels. An introductory pre-service course cannot go beyond Level Four. In-service training will try to improve teachers' abilities on Level Four, and/or develop specific skills for Levels Two and Three. More academic courses, and research, will be concerned with Level One, but only approaching it via the lower levels. At Level One, outside influences (e.g. ethical, political or economic) should come into play.

83-156 Kennedy, Chris (U. of Birmingham). New directions in post-experience teacher-training. *How* (Bogota, Colombia), **40** (1981), 8-10.

Traditional British one-year MA courses in Applied Linguistics pose problems for the overseas teacher who wishes to improve his knowledge of his subject, in terms of a long absence from family and job. There is also the problem of applying general principles to the participant's own teaching situation. A course being developed by Birmingham University is described which tries to overcome these difficulties: based on the 'sandwich' principle of alternating periods of study at post with periods away from work (in the UK), it is divided into four phases spread over two years: (1) at post (9 months) doing introductory reading and set tasks; (2) at Birmingham (2½ months), doing courses in sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, testing, current theory and practice, background planning for phase 3 project work; (3) at post (9 months), implementing research project planned in phase 2; (4) at Birmingham (2½ months), recycling phase 2 work in greater depth and discussing projects.

This cyclical syllabus unites the different strands of the course and makes the teacher and his situation the central concern of the course.

83-157 Loonen, Piet and others. De Britse Teachers' Centres, een vorm van nascholing. [The British Teachers' Centres, a form of inservice training.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **373** (1982), 504-16.

A report on the Teachers' Centres run by local education authorities in the United Kingdom. The report was compiled by a group of Dutch teachers in 1981. The aims and organisation of the Centres are discussed, and several facets of the Centres' work are considered in detail, particularly the role they play as a provider of in-service education, in curriculum development, as resource centres, as a source of support for new teachers, as a social centre for teachers in general, and as a means of communication between teachers and schools in the area they serve. Conditions in Holland are quite different from those in the UK, most notably in the provision of inservice training. Despite these differences, however, something like the British Teachers' Centres would be a useful and fruitful development in the Netherlands.

83-158 Saltiel, Michèle. Des réformes en morceaux. [Piecemeal reform.] *Monde de l'Education* (Paris), **76** (1981), 21-2.

The proposed reform of elementary and secondary education has been abandoned; plans formulated have been shelved. There has been no follow-up to experimental work or research projects, the findings of which have been ignored; no attempt has been made to integrate them into programmes of teacher training. Many teachers have no grounding in linguistics. Furthermore, they are ill-equipped to understand today's adolescents. There can be no effective reform without reform of teacher training. [Part of a section on *La crise de l'enseignement du français* 'The crisis in the teaching of French', pp. 10-25.]

TEACHING METHODS

83–159 Alexander, Richard. What's in a four-letter word? Word meaning in English and second-language learning. *Die neueren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **81**, 2 (1982), 219–24.

Second-language learning entails learning the complex relationships which link items in the lexicon of the second language. The nature of the meaning relations between words is briefly discussed. Meanings are of a dynamic nature; words are embedded within multidimensional networks. It is helpful for the foreign language teacher and the advanced learner of English to be aware of the numerous associations which content words enter into with other items. An illustration is provided: some of the relations which the work *kick* enters into are presented.

83–160 Bogaards, Paul. Ideeen over onderwijs, methode en de behandeling van fouten in het vreemde-talenonderwijs. [Ideas about teaching, method and the treatment of errors in foreign-language teaching.] *Levende Talen* (the Hague), **371** (1982), 299–309.

Bogaards discusses the general consensus view about how errors should be handled in foreign-language teaching. He stresses the importance of handling errors consistently, but discusses a range of options based on Allwright's (1975) treatment of this question. He identifies four main ways of handling errors, associated with the four principal methods: (a) the view associated with grammar translation methods that errors are simply wrong; (b) the view associated with the audio-lingual method that errors should be avoided as far as possible; (c) the view associated with the cognitive code learning method that errors are part of normal language learning behaviour, and (d) the view associated with the communicative competence method that making errors is not intrinsically wrong, and that getting your message across is a more important consideration.

The final section reports the results of a survey given to 113 Dutch teachers of foreign languages in 62 schools. The questionnaire consisted of 85 statements to be rated on a five point scale of agreement/disagreement. These ratings were subjected to a factor analysis which showed that four main factors accounted for most of the variance. These four factors correspond closely to the four types of method and the four ways of handling errors discussed above.

83–161 Arnold, Helen (County English Adviser, Suffolk). Talking: the way into reading? *Reading* (Sunderland) **16**, 2 (1982), 79–84.

Because children are now surrounded with print from birth, the assessment of reading readiness should focus more on the ability to interact with and to make sense of experience through language from a very early age. Some examples of children's dialogue are given which illustrate stages in readiness for reading derived directly from their speech. Evidence can be drawn from different levels of language use, from surface features content and interactive elements; it includes curiosity, the desire to

share experience, the ability to select from experience in order to recount events, using and understanding time conventions, the ability to repeat phrases and sentences in the same form, to name or define something correctly, and an awareness of the distinctive features of words. Formal tests are not necessary to pinpoint these elements, simply listening to children talking.

83–162 Brumfit, Christopher (U. of London Inst. of Ed.). Some humanistic doubts about humanistic language teaching. *ELT Documents* (London), **113** (1982), 11–19.

Humanistic teachers see language as something which must engage the whole person. Few teachers today would not subscribe to humanistic ideals; the problems arise when it comes to discussing the best means to achieve them. One aspect of humanistic teaching derives from a therapeutic tradition, seeing the student as patient and the teacher as therapist. In an extreme form, it is claimed that learning will benefit if students have 'wholesome' relationships with classmates. Students are invited to bring deep feelings into the public area of the classroom. True affective teaching is much more likely to occur where staff and students have a genuine and trusting relationship. Any discussion of teaching must be in the rational mode: many proponents of humanistic teaching reject analytic modes of argument as dry and inhumane. We cannot afford to rely on intuitive experience in teaching because its workings cannot be publicly scrutinised.

83–163 Fitz-Gibbon, C. T. and Reay, D. G. (U. of Newcastle upon Tyne). Peer tutoring: brightening up FL teaching in an urban comprehensive school. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **20**, 1 (1982), 39–44.

A project in peer tutoring carried out by the School of Education, Newcastle upon Tyne, with the foreign-language department of a local comprehensive school in an Educational Priority Area, is described. Older pupils were asked to spend a few lessons tutoring younger pupils in French in the hope that the motivation and interest of the older pupils would be aroused, they would obtain valuable oral practice and, through teaching, would learn the work better themselves. They would also, it was hoped, enjoy the experience. Questionnaires to pupils confirmed the strong dislike they had for French, even before taking it up in the first year of secondary school, though in comparison with other school subjects French was ranked higher than Maths, Science and Humanities.

Clear, simple exercises were selected by the teachers for tutoring, involving French/English and English/French translation of five vocabulary areas, such as numbers and the weather. Pre-testing showed that pupils (the tutors) scored on average less than 50 per cent; tutees (who had had no formal instruction) scored only 8 per cent. The project was implemented in six 70-minute lessons over a period of three weeks. Tutors spent 20 minutes preparing with their teacher, then tutored for 30 minutes, then spent 20 minutes discussing any problems. Tutees were assigned to tutors from rank-ordered lists, high-scoring tutors working with high-scoring tutees. The atmosphere in the tutoring groups was hushed and concentrated. Teachers did

not intervene but merely listened. On post-testing with the same test used in the pre-test, tutors obtained an average of 69 per cent, and tutees a remarkable 48 per cent, a gain which was still evident four months later. All but one of the tutors reported enjoying the experience, particularly where they had had a good relationship with their tutee. The tutors showed more positive attitudes to French after the experiment.

83–164 Freedman, Elaine S. (U. of Leicester). Experimentation into foreign-language teaching methodology: the research findings. *System* (Oxford), 10, 2 (1982), 119–33.

The purpose of this research was to conduct a valid small-scale foreign-language teaching method experiment, and in doing so, to acquire information about teaching methods involving the use of language laboratory tapes. It was found that, for students new to the topics, the deductive method of presentation produced higher achievement scores, although student opinion was divided as to whether the inductive or deductive method was preferable. The presence of a presentation was found to produce better achievement results, when that presentation comprised grammatical rules and the practice element consisted of ‘unrelated’ drills. This was, however, only true when the materials were used for initial teaching, not for revision. Of those students who had used ‘drills only’ tapes, the vast majority said that they would have preferred the tape to have contained some form of presentation. Indeed many used their opportunity for free comment to make this point. Neither achievement nor attitude differences were found when the pronoun materials were used for revision, just as no differences had been found for the inductive/deductive comparison. Little consistent information was yielded by the comparison concerning ‘contextualised’ drills, although what there was did not favour their use. A very strong link was found between teacher and student attitudes, and the results of earlier research concerning instrumental and integrative motivation were confirmed. Performance was found to vary from school to school. Even though the type of school attended appeared to be more influential in determining achievement than the type of experimental tape used, the type of school did not affect the position of superiority of the ‘deductive’ tape. It is believed that the random assignment of experimental tapes, and the strict control measures employed, resulted in the experiments having good internal validity. The use of two different grammatical topics, and the similarity of results achieved, especially in the inductive/deductive comparison, together with the use of many different schools, should have improved the external validity of the experiments.

83–165 Gasser, Herbert. *Konversationsunterricht – zeitgemäß? [Conversation – does it have a place in language teaching today?]* *Zielsprache Deutsch* (Munich, FRG), 1 (1982), 24–8.

The conversation class is discussed from a theoretical point of view: its chief purpose is helping students overcome their reluctance to speak. Its content should correspond to the interests, experiences and knowledge of the participants; the background role of the teacher should be that of a guide, intervening as little as possible – conversation flow is more important than correctness. In talking about the practical aspects, the

author discusses how much guidance should be given, ways of ascertaining the students' interests and language level, and the role of the teacher in the classroom. This is followed by a practical model example of a conversation class. The conversation class is adaptable to various levels; greater attention should be given to students' interests in planning conversation classes.

83-166 Higgins, John (British Council, London). How real is a computer simulation? *ELT Documents* (London), **113** (1982), 102-9.

The character and complexity of conversation comes from the mixture of intervention and response: the latter is often suppressed in the classroom. In the BASIC programming language the keywords INPUT and OUTPUT provide a metaphor of the intervention/response process. What is superficially a conversation between machine and human, however, is really a displaced interaction between the human teacher who composed the computer's messages and the learner who receives them. A question-and-answer sequence to which the questioner knows the answer is a quiz; computer quizzes require little programming skill. The machine is always in the role of teacher, the learners controlling only the pace. Other possibilities which exist are in the area of text presentation and processing, such as cloze exercises. In a search task, learners question the computer and try to catch it out, thereby formalising their knowledge of spelling rules, etc. Another group of activities utilises the GET keyword and introduces the element of skill and timing. There are many potential applications of the game technique. Another category of activities is simulations, either in dialogue form or involving a blend of response and intervention. They are most rewarding if done in a small group, consultatively. An initial task, often an 'adventure', is assigned and probably several possible solutions or routes to a solution. Cost is no longer an inhibiting factor.

83-167 Holmes, Glyn (U. of Western Ontario) and **Kidd, Marilyn** (Huron Coll.). Second-language learning and computers. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **38**, 3 (1982), 503-16.

A brief historical overview of computer-assisted language instruction (CALI). The first significant programmes were in the late '60s for Russian at the University of Stanford and German at the University of New York at Stony Brook, both large-scale projects, neither of which eventually achieved its goals. Projects of the early '70s emphasised the creation of technically sophisticated hardware systems, such as the PLATO project, but high costs and technical problems combined with the realisation that many CALI applications could be performed better and more cheaply by other means, so that less emphasis began to be placed on technical systems. New programmes were more modest, and emphasised pedagogical principles and practical applications; they were almost always seen as a supplement to traditional forms of instruction. In some cases, language teachers assumed the role of computer programmer.

The general functions which the computer can perform which make it suitable for teaching purposes are (1) presentation of data, (2) analysis of input and (3) interaction with the learner. The language skills these functions serve to develop are grammar,

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vocabulary, reading comprehension, translation, aural comprehension and oral skills [examples]. The computer cannot rival the versatility of the human teacher, cannot deal easily with complex input such as translation, or handle composition or speech.

83–168 Hutchinson, Tom and Klepač, Mira (Obrazovni Centar za Jezike, Zagreb). The communicative approach: a question of materials or attitudes? *System* (Oxford), **10**, 2 (1982), 135–43.

A series of lessons is described which uses communicative materials and techniques. The communicative materials in question made use of the information-gap principle: one group of students had to give information to another group. However, it was felt that except at a very simple level, this form of task does not work very well. Traditionally, students are not taught how to process and present data effectively, which might have helped them with this task. Also they had no good motivation for giving or getting information, except that they had been told to do so.

The results were not communicative because the students treated the tasks as academic exercises for assessment purposes. It is concluded that the aims of the materials were out of focus with what the students saw as their role in the educational process. A communicative approach must be considered within the whole context of attitudes to learning and to education.

83–169 Johns, T. F. (U. of Birmingham). The uses of an analytic generator: the computer as teacher of English for Specific Purposes. *ELT Documents* (London), **112** (1981), 96–105.

The potential of the microcomputer in ESP is examined with reference to work carried out at Birmingham University. Of the various techniques available, that of 'generation by analysis' may be of particular value in compensating for the lack of flexibility in non-computerised ESP materials, and ongoing work employing this technique is described.

The computer accepts information, processes it and then outputs the processed information. This input/output procedure is a form of interaction like the question-answer-feedback exchange; the computer can model a sequence of such exchanges in the form of a quiz. The quiz structure is fundamental to most of the work being done in computer-assisted instruction (CAI), different approaches being distinguished by the way the structure is modified or elaborated. The computer has its own distinctive characteristics as a teacher, good and bad, depending on how it has been programmed. The author and his colleagues felt that priority should be given to materials based on tests longer than the simplex sentence or isolated word; programmes should be as game-like as possible, and instruction should be computer-generated. Two basic strategies which have emerged are generation by synthesis and generation by analysis. The first is based on the ability of the computer to select elements randomly within a slot-and-filler structure, the second depends on the interaction between files of texts and programmes to perform operations on texts: analytic operations include the division of text into words, syntactic chunks and sentences, and manipulations such as re-ordering and deletion. A programme called *Jumbler* is a compendium of three

gambling games based on the re-ordering principle, and offers unlimited practice at all levels of structure in written English. Refinements which it is hoped will be looked into include a self-adjusting element in the programmes, and an application of the 'language transfer' or 'mixed-text' approach.

83-170 Knibbeler, Wil (U. of Nijmegen). *Silent Way en Suggestopedia nader bekeken*. [A further look at Suggestopaedia and the Silent Way.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **373** (1982), 488-99.

After obtaining the main differences between Suggestopaedia and the Silent Way, Knibbeler gives an account of an experiment designed to compare the effectiveness of these two methods on the learning of French. A series of evening classes were taught by several teachers using one or other method, to both beginners and a more advanced group. Progress was measured by listening and productive tests, motivation tests and a self-assessment test. Small differences due to method were found: advanced Silent Way students performed slightly better on the production test, for example. But these differences were very small, and much smaller than the differences found between teachers who were using the same method. Both groups showed a slight increase in motivation and an improvement on the self-assessment scores, but these differences too were small, compared to the range of differences produced by the teacher variable.

83-171 Levin, Harry (Cornell U.) and others. The prosodic and paralinguistic features of reading and telling stories. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **25**, 1 (1982), 43-54.

Four teachers read and told preschool children well known stories which were recorded. Two composite tapes were prepared from the recordings. Ten-second sections of tape were spliced together to form 112 randomly intermixed examples of each teacher reading and telling stories to two groups of children. Fifty-six items were treated by a low-pass filter which removed all content information but preserved prosodic and paralinguistic information. Two groups of 11 adult subjects each judged whether the segment was an example of reading or telling. For both filtered and unfiltered speech, the subjects could accurately discriminate reading from telling; they were more accurate on the unfiltered portions of the tape. A qualitative analysis of items easy and difficult to judge correctly, indicated a number of variables that were probably instrumental in making the reading-telling distinction. These variables were coded from the original unfiltered tapes. Reading appears to be more rapid and free of hesitations, which can be explained by story telling being a cognitively creative task. An important stylistic variant is the placement of the speaker-tag before or after a quotation. The tag after the quote is a literary form almost never used in telling stories; the tag before the quote is used both in reading and telling.

83–172 Maley, Alan (British Council, China). Exquisite corpses, men of glass and oulipo: harnessing the irrational to language learning. *ELT Documents* (London), **113** (1982), 34–40.

Techniques for developing written texts are presented and discussed, based on the principles that (1) activities should be task-centred, (2) information exchange should be an integral part of the activity and (3) the unexpected should be sought as a stimulus. Many materials are excessively serious or trivial. Language-play is essential in mother-tongue acquisition, so an attempt should be made to incorporate the ludic function into foreign-language learning. Techniques are described for developing word play, sentence play, text play and the making of poems. The level of language inputs and tasks can be controlled to suit different groups of learners.

83–173 Moskowitz, Gertrude (Temple U., Philadelphia). Self-confidence through self-disclosure: the pursuit of meaningful communication. *ELT Documents* (London), **113** (1982), 20–33.

People of all cultures have the same basic psychological needs for close relationships, to be listened to, to know themselves better and have a more positive outlook. Teachers report positive results when using humanistic activities with their students. Personalising the content may not be enough if the information elicited is trivial. Self-disclosure reveals things about ourselves which are meaningful, and thus increases feelings of warmth and closeness among students as well as self-knowledge. A positive and accepting climate in the classroom is essential: the teacher should focus on positive aspects and use low-risk, non-threatening activities [e.g. childhood favourites, how strong I am, cherished object]. Students usually became motivated to participate, improve their attitudes to learning the foreign language, their self-image and their acceptance of class-mates.

83–174 Nissen, Rudolf. Phasen und Formen des textverarbeitenden Lerngesprächs im Englischunterricht. [Stages and ways in the treatment of texts in English lessons by means of pedagogically effective conversations.] *Neusprachliche Mitteilungen* (Berlin, FRG), **35**, 2 (1982), 114–25.

Teachers often complain that conversations in lessons cannot be planned and structured. A framework is presented here for the steering of seemingly free-flowing discussions. The pupils' contributions should always relate explicitly or implicitly to the text. If the discussion does not 'get off the ground' the teacher should steer the class's attention to facts and ideas presented in the text and ask the pupils to formulate these in their own words. The starting-point of the discussion should always be the pupils' comments on the text. The body of the discussion should be built up from the reasoned opinions of all the pupils. The various points made must be summarised succinctly at regular intervals. Depending on their ability, the teacher should expect pupils to produce original comments and/or to reproduce ideas already put forward. The conversation is flowing well if the pupils' contributions relate to or are logical extensions of what has gone before, either in terms of the original text

or the subsequent comments of classmates. The teacher should never formulate questions or answers himself, correct the pupils' errors or suggest solutions to problems. The teacher's role is to bring forward points already made so that they can be further discussed and clarified.

83-175 Omaggio, Alice C. Using games and interaction activities for the development of functional proficiency in a second language. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **38**, 3 (1982), 517-46.

Various ideas for incorporating functional and communicative language practice into the foreign-language classroom are presented. Eleven games, simulations, and communicative interaction activities are described, analysed, and discussed in terms of their usefulness in reaching specific functional and communicative objectives, drawn from a taxonomy of objectives for second-language skill development created by the author. The activities are categorised into three types: (1) group puzzles, (2) group decision-making, and (3) social interaction activities. Each activity is accompanied by a set of proficiency goals and an inventory of functions, notions, and linguistic structures likely to surface during play. In all of the activities students are responsible for communicating specific information needed by others in a group in order to accomplish some collective task. This structure for sharing information provides the mechanism for realistic communication in a classroom setting.

83-176 Raban, Bridie (U. of Reading). Text display effects on the fluency of young readers. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), **5**, 1 (1982), 7-28.

The aim of this research was to investigate one of the features of text display in books printed for young readers: the position of the line-break with respect to the phrase structure of the sentence. When reading aloud, children tend to equate line length with a complete sentence, thus disrupting their fluency and, possibly, comprehension. This research was specifically designed to investigate the effect of a line-break after each word in the sentence pattern: subject-verb-object-adverbial. In an associated experiment, positioning effects of the word were investigated in co-ordinating positions between clauses, phrases and words occurring at the end of one line or at the beginning of the next. These experimental line-breaks were embedded in a story which had an identical parallel form in which none of the sentences was violated by line-breaks. In total, 254 five- to eight-year-old children were tape-recorded reading pairs of texts aloud, with a three-week break between recordings. These tapes were analysed for disruptions of fluency and comprehension. A hierarchy of difficulty in relation to the occurrence of the line-breaks for these sentence patterns was identified.

83-177 Ralph, Edwin G. (Assiniboine South Sch. Div. no. 3, Winnipeg). The unmotivated second-language learner: can students' negative attitudes be changed? *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **38**, 3 (1982), 493-502.

Ways in which teachers can try to combat negative attitudes include a 'first-day pep-talk', not expecting linguistic perfection in the early stages of oral work, clearly stated goals and objectives, showing genuine approval, reinforcing (intermittently and

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in small quantities) successive approximations of the desired behaviour, and helping the student to experience success in active involvement in class activities. Teachers should adopt a benevolently dictatorial approach. Changes in students' cognitive behaviour can have a positive effect on their attitudes, and can be brought about by setting them meaningful problems. Teachers should try to present a positive and professional image. To increase motivation, provision for creativity should be made, and students taught to ask questions. The use of novelty in the classroom is stimulating.

83–178 Swain, Merrill (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education). Time and timing in bilingual education. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **31**, 1 (1981), 1–15.

The paper questions the assumption that the relationship between time spent studying in a second language and second-language proficiency is highly related for those aspects of language related to cognitive and academic functioning. In bilingual education programmes aimed at the majority-language child, older learners make more rapid progress than younger learners in CALP (cognitive academic linguistic proficiency)-related skills. As far as transitional bilingual education programmes are concerned, there is an odd switch in logic. The children are first educated in their own language, endorsing the notion that instruction in the first language can benefit the second language, then switched to an all-English programme on the logic of 'the more language instruction, the higher the second-language proficiency'. To be logical, there should either be English-only programmes from the beginning (which we know does not work) or there should be programmes which allow for the continued use of both languages.

The implications for time and timing need to be considered in the relevant sociocultural contexts, particularly the use of the second language in the wider environment. In a majority-language situation, this use may be severely restricted; in a minority-language situation, it is difficult to avoid. The overwhelming use of the dominant language in school and in the wider community may lead to a degree of loss of the first language. It is therefore recommended that, for the majority child, the second language be introduced as early as possible in a way that allows for the development of communicative skills (because the wider environment will not provide the opportunity for this). There is no risk to first-language learning, because of its overwhelming use in the wider environment, and motivation for language learning will be lower in older children. The more time devoted to second-language instruction, the better. For the minority-language child, second-language instruction should be put off as long as possible, and should at no time entirely replace first-language instruction. This ensures that the first language will not be lost.

83–179 Watson, Cynthia B. The use and abuse of models in the ESL writing class. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **16**, 1 (1982), 5–14.

The use of model passages is widespread in ESL writing texts at all levels, but can students incorporate their input into their own writing? One approach treats the model

as a source of patterns to be reproduced or manipulated, reinforcing grammar teaching. Another approach chooses models for their appeal in theme or topic, analyses how the model is put together and shows how students can adapt it. Models are either authentic or specially written. At the elementary level, the former has advantages, but can be depressingly artificial or so simplified as to offer false reassurance. At every level, an attempt should be made to introduce literature in some form, to stimulate the student's own response which can then be guided into genuine composition.

Model-based tasks and exercises may be manipulative, ignoring the communicative purpose of the model, or completion exercises, based on the notion of guidance rather than control. They force students into a limited amount of actual composition. A rhetorically-based approach assumes that effective writing is based on conscious thought about logical and other relationships. Rhetoric serves a communicative purpose, and many recent ESL writing texts focus on this, asking students to write with the same purpose as the model, using different situations. There has been growing dissatisfaction with traditional model-based writing lessons as likely to stultify and inhibit writers; current trends are to use them to show students how to solve specific writing problems or as merely one cue for writing alongside visual and graphic devices. The model has become a resource rather than an ideal.

83–180 Willems, Gerard M. Gedifferentieerd onderwijs in de vreemde talen en enige gedachten over de gevolgen voor het beoordelen van taalvaardigheid. [Individualised learning in foreign languages and some thoughts on its implications for the assessment of language ability.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), 367 (1981), 973–88.

The educational and social reasons which have led to an interest in individualised learning are briefly discussed. Early models of individualised learning tended to neglect the importance of allowing students to use their own texts, paid little attention to the communicative needs of students, and often only gave extra practice opportunities to faster students while the slower ones were still working on the basics. Willems discusses a rather more complex four-phase model that meets some of these objections, and provides examples of materials which allow both fast and slow learners to use the language material in situations where communication is relatively natural and relevant. Two examples of tests (produced by CITO), which are essentially tests of communicative ability, are discussed, and the need for tests which are diagnostic, not focused on error, and which give the learner the chance to show what he can do, is emphasised.