

# Language learning and teaching

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## THEORY AND PRINCIPLES *See also abstracts 80–58, –70*

**80–38** Cook, V. J. Language processes and language teaching. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), 3, 1 (1977), 19–27.

Classroom language, by aiming at 'competence', has neglected many 'performance' factors that are vital to the use of language. Among these are: the conversion of message into language in speech production; the use of selection and attention in perception; the interaction of production and perception processes; the roles of primary and secondary memory in processing and storing language. In addition, the bias towards competence has ignored the process of language learning: specifying a syllabus should involve looking at learning issues as well as the description of competence, even if that is broadened to include communicative aspects.

**80–39** Corder, S. P. Pure and applied research in linguistics: is the difference merely one of motivation? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 1, 2 (1978), 77–90.

Authors seem to agree in a general way that applied linguistics is a problem-solving activity not a theoretical discipline, but difficulties arise when we try to be more precise. Applied linguistic activity serves as a controlled testing procedure for the validity of linguistic theoretical constructs, and can sometimes act as a stimulus for theoretical linguists to investigate new aspects of language in a scientific manner. There is no simple correlation between validity and utility of linguistic theories. Practical applications of theories do not yield clear-cut results, success being a matter of degree, and difficult in any case to measure.

Linguists rarely state that their research has been stimulated by the need to solve practical rather than theoretical problems; applied linguists, on the other hand, have been forced to theorise for the lack of adequate theories. In the field of sociolinguistics the distinction between application and theorising is not sharply drawn. Interlanguage is a theoretical construct but is not part of either linguistics or psycholinguistic theory at present; the stimulus for theorising about it came from applied needs. Linguistic theory is only concerned with well-determined static, or ideal, systems. The difference between 'pure' and 'applied' theorising is illusory: they are not different in kind or in method but only in their original stimulus – desire for understanding for its own sake, or desire to solve a problem.

- 80-40 Hartveldt, Dolf.** Situatie en taalgebruik: een kwestie van interpretatie. [Situation and language use: a question of interpretation.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), 338/9 (1979), 30-4.

In language teaching it is always hoped that the learner will become more sensitive to the connection between situation and language use. The concept 'situation' is defined and exemplified and an attempt is made at listing the most important factors determining a situation. These consist of the participants, the quality of the contact between them, the subject of the exchange, the setting, the tone (e.g. formal/informal) of the language use. The influence of each of these factors on the total situation is analysed.

However, so little is known about how language is really used in day-to-day transactions that linguists and sociolinguists must take the description of this as one of their most important tasks in the future. The most immediate question for researchers is: 'What language elements (utterances, words, sounds, intonation-patterns) of conversation or text X in situation Y can be connected with which factors in situation Y?'

- 80-41 Ingram, Elizabeth.** Applied linguistics, linguistics research and the empirical model. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 1, 2 (1978), 37-53.

Research in applied linguistics must (1) be relevant to those whose problems are being investigated, and reach them in an effective way; and (2) must be competent – too few applied linguists have any training in carrying out empirical research. Linguistics involves (a) meta-theories (attitudes about what the central problems are and the best way to investigate them), (b) linguistic theories proper (technical details), and (c) descriptions. Of these, (a) has received disproportionate attention. Learners, as well as teachers, need to be able to find out about language. The best way to convince people of the relevance of linguistic descriptions is to demonstrate how linguistic concepts and method can be used to arrive at descriptions [examples from Norwegian spelling and the syntagm].

Necessary conditions for a valid project include: knowledge of the practical problems, knowledge of more than one theoretical discipline, and understanding the requirements for empirical research [examples of errors in research projects].

- 80-42 McDonough, S. H.** The role of psychology in applied linguistics. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), 3, 1 (1977), 68-82.

The utility of insights from experimental psychology in applied linguistics considered as language teaching theory is discussed with reference to Glaser's concept of a 'science of design'. It is argued that Glaser's four components of such a science form a suitable framework for specifying the role of psychological information in the design and evaluation of language instruction. Several problems in the nature of the relationship between experimentation and application to instruction are explored, and examples of relevant experiments and the possible incorporation of insights derived from them in the 'science of design' are elaborated.

- 80-43 Menting, J. P.** De taalgebruik-benadering van het VTO. [The communicative approach to foreign-language teaching.] *Levende Talen* (Amsterdam), 338/9 (1979), 21-9.

An approach to language teaching based on language use rather than the language itself is not at present practicable, since no apparatus exists for describing and analysing the matter to be taught. Both Hymes and the writers of the Threshold Level arrive at six main categories of language functions, but they are not the same six. This in itself suggests doubt as to the validity of such a concept as 'function'.

Any advantages the communicative approach may have need first to be demonstrated both through adequate descriptive terms and in terms of pedagogical results obtained. Neither the theory of the communicative approach nor the resulting materials are sufficiently well thought out. Much of it arises in an *ad hoc* way and with many false pretensions to originality.

It would be premature to apply the new approach on a national level (in the Netherlands), since language teaching will then have its direction determined for years to come on what may well prove to be a mistaken basis. The communicative approach should first be tried out on a small scale and have its validity fully proven before any fundamental changes are made.

- 80-44 Raasch, Albert.** Objectifs d'apprentissage et inventaires linguistiques. [Learning objectives and language inventories.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), 31 (1978), 29-43.

Basic English, *le Français Fondamental* (FF), *Französische Mindeswortschatz* (FM) and *Un Niveau Seuil* (NS) are statements of minima; what practical help are they to teachers and students? FF, FM and NS are evaluated for their contributions towards clarifying learning objectives, promoting efficient and economical instruction and improving

attainment tests [specimen layouts; comparative table of contents]. NS assembles elements of *parole* directly usable in appropriate contexts. MF and FF show more of *langue*. The student's competence at any moment is a developing transitional dialect reaching towards the authentic target language [schema]. NS and FF have no attainment tests. FM is the basis of *Volkshochschulverband* certificates. No current inventory directly helps teachers in their daily tasks and none is intelligible to students.

**80-45 Widdowson, H. G.** The partiality and relevance of linguistic descriptions. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 1, 2 (1978), 9-24.

This paper questions the common assumption that a linguistic model of language must of necessity serve as the underlying frame of reference for language teaching. Palmer demonstrates the absurdity of traditional definitions of parts of speech by saying that the sentences *He suffered terribly* and *His suffering was terrible* are identical in meaning, but to the language user, rather than the analyst, they are different in meaning, and the user's intuitive sense of the nature of language should be respected. Increasing concern with the communicative properties of language means that the orientation of the communicators will be taken into account. A model is needed which realises the necessary coincidence of partiality and relevance. The communicative orientation to description which considers social context and variation should be favourable to what is required. Description of language in terms of process will be very different from description which treats language as a product.

## PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING *See also abstracts*

80-53, -64, -68, -86

**80-46 Amastae, Jon.** The acquisition of English vowels. *Papers in Linguistics* (Champaign, Ill), 11, 3/4 (1978), 423-54.

Data are presented on the acquisition and use of certain English vowels by Spanish-English bilinguals, which cannot be accounted for on the basis of variation according to social context as manifested in formal v. casual styles. However, when one considers the use of individual variables by individual speakers, a clear pattern emerges: the variables are ordered on an implicational scale such that if a speaker has fully mastered a variable lower down the scale, then he will also already have mastered all the variables higher up the scale. (The variables investigated here are  $i$   $e$   $\text{æ}$   $o^w$   $u$ , across nine speakers.) This phenomenon forms part of a more general pattern in which the acquisition of each variable on the scale proceeds in a number of stages: first, only an 'interference

variant' is used, which is determined by the speaker's first language. Then there is variation between the interference variant and the standard variant, and finally full mastery is attained with use of the standard variant only. The ordering of the variables on the scale is, from highest to lowest:  $o^w \text{ } \text{æ} \cup \text{ } \text{é} \text{ } \text{I}$ . A similar relation between the variables emerges from work on first-language acquisition and on language universals. Certain implications of this finding are drawn for markedness theory and for language teaching.

**80-47 Bialystok, Ellen and Frohlich, Maria.** Variables of classroom achievement in second-language learning. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **62**, 7 (1978), 327-36.

In the study described here, the roles of four cognitive and affective factors, Aptitude, Field Independence, Attitude and Strategy Use, is assessed in terms of particular language experiences measured by four different achievement tests representing combinations of two parameters – purpose and modality. 'Purpose' refers to a continuum of formal/functional language behaviour, and 'modality' characterises language as either oral or written. [Method; tests; results.] Results showed that Aptitude and Field Independence are related, as are Strategy Use and Attitude; only Aptitude and Strategy Use, however, affect achievement. A useful implication for teaching is that whereas Aptitude is probably an unmodifiable variable, a learner may be trained in the use of strategies, which should help him to improve his proficiency irrespective of his ability. This distinction between cognitive and affective variables in terms of their importance for second-language learning may be misleading, as different situations may specify various combinations of factors, and learners deficient in one set of factors may be able to compensate by accentuating the other. [References.]

**80-48 Krashen, Stephen D.** Adult second-language acquisition as post-critical period learning. *ITL* (Louvain), **43**, 1 (1979), 39-52.

Differences in child language acquisition and second-language learning are briefly reviewed. Evidence suggests that adults, as well as children, are able to acquire language; part of this evidence relates to the finding of the child's difficulty order for aspects of grammar in adult second-language performance. The author's 'monitor model' specifies the relationship between acquisition and learning in adult second-language performance. Whereas both children and adults utilise acquired competence, most adults also utilise conscious linguistic knowledge (the 'monitor') when sufficient time is available to apply it. Performers are classified as optimal users of the monitor, over-users and under-users. [Examples from other forms of post-critical period learning, martial arts

and tennis, show that the 'stilling' of the conscious mind leads to better performance.] [References.]

- 80-49 Larsen-Freeman, Diane.** Implications of the morpheme studies for second-language acquisition. *ITL* (Louvain), **39/40** (1978), 93-102.

Earlier research by the author showed that various factors (morpheme complexity, learner variables, etc.) influence accurate production of the common morpheme sequence. Significant positive correlations were only obtained when the morpheme acquisition order was compared with the frequency of occurrence of these morphemes in native-speaker speech (the speech of English parents conversing with their children). In order to examine morpheme frequencies in the type of language input an ESL learner would be likely to encounter, the speech of ESL teachers was recorded during classroom instruction. [Tables of results.]

The evidence supported the hypothesis that the frequency of occurrence of the nine morphemes in English native-speaker speech is the main determinant of the oral production ESL morpheme 'acquisition' order. It may be that non-native speakers learn to insert the appropriate morphemes in an attempt to match the '*gestalt*' of the native-speaker input to which they are exposed. The morphemes may be present in unanalysed memorised patterns which the learners have incorporated into their repertoires. The morphemes at the top of the order are the ones most likely to enter into memorised patterns.

- 80-50 Lyczak, Richard A.** The effects of exposure to a language on subsequent learning. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **22**, 1 (1979), 81-8.

Over a period of four days subjects were exposed to three hours of recorded Thai conversation, Japanese conversation, or music. On the fifth day all subjects learned to recognise (translate) ten Thai sentences in a paired associate type task. Type of exposure had no effect on response latency or rate of learning. In a post-criterion task subjects were provided with translations and asked to produce the Thai sentences. Subject exposed to Thai produced more words than subjects exposed to music or Japanese. Subjects exposed to Japanese produced words from fewer sentences than subjects exposed to music or Thai.

- 80-51 Stafford, Cynthia and Covitt, Ginger.** Monitor use in adult second-language production. *ITL* (Louvain), **39/40** (1978), 103-25.

The aim of this study was to test Krashen's 'Monitor theory' in the second-language production of advanced ESL students, selected from

ESL classes at the University of California. The students were interviewed to determine the extent to which they consciously used grammar rules. The students wrote a composition and were then asked to correct any errors they could find, giving reasons for any changes made. [Transcripts of taped sessions with four students.]

Two of the four informants could not and did not use rules to monitor their written or spoken output, although they believed rules to be important. Both were highly competent verbally and their writing was average. The other two students tried to monitor their performance, only one being successful. The performance of both seemed to be hampered.

**80-52 Stauble, Ann-Marie and Larsen-Freeman, Diane.** The use of variable rules in describing the interlanguage of second-language learners. *Workpapers in Teaching English as a Second Language*, 12 (1978), 72-87.

There is a need in second-language acquisition research for a formal device which will display variability and systematicity in the L2 acquisition process. The device created by the authors is a form of the variable rule used by sociolinguists. The rules constructed here define the linguistic environment in which variant forms occur and state the percentage of certain utterances accounted for by each rule at each stage of development.

Formation of such rules allow the authors to describe the interlanguage of three Spanish speakers as they were in the process of acquiring English negation. From the description it can be seen that the variation in the interlanguage of these learners is not random and unpredictable, but, rather, patterned and rule-governed. This patterning of variation seems to reflect grammatical changes and stages of development in the interlanguage of learners as they progress through time from using an initial categorical non-standard pre-verbal negation rule to the eventual acquisition of the categorical standard English post-verbal negation rules. Each stage of development represents a step closer than its antecedent in the direction of the target language. As a result, the developing interlanguage of the second-language learner can be characterised by a continuum of non-discrete developmental stages which are describable by variable rules.

## TESTING

- 80-53 Meredith, R. Alan.** Improved oral test scores through delayed response. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), **62**, 7 (1978), 321-7.

An experiment was carried out which confirmed that impulsive subjects in oral response situations perform better when a latency period is imposed on them than when allowed to respond as soon as they wish. Subjects were high-school students in Spanish classes, who were given a preliminary test to discover their 'conceptual tempo' (a variable of cognitive style which relates to speed of selecting and processing hypotheses), and classified into four categories: reflective, impulsive, fast-accurate, and slow-inaccurate. A test was developed in which the examinees had to form a single sentence from a triplet of words. In the language laboratory, one group had a 20-second pause imposed before being told they could answer. [Scoring; results.] Impulsive subjects will use an imposed latency period to formulate more adequate responses. Reflective, and indeed all, subjects performed better under the imposed-latency condition. Tests of oral proficiency should therefore be modified to discourage impulsive responding.

## CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

- 80-54 Landis, George B.** Eureka! A surefire second-language curriculum. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), **6**, 3 (1978), 143-57.

More effective language learning, whatever the learner's objective, requires as its first stage the development of the listening skill for basic receptive competence. Then follows development of the reading and writing skills. Time devoted to speaking could be greatly reduced or eliminated, or picked up at the end of the programme.

A seven-phase programme is briefly described, which includes more listening than speaking in phase two, listening while following the text in phase three, and compensatory training for the weakest skills in phase six. The first six phases can be spread over several years, from kindergarten to the end of primary school, and phase seven (study of literature, creative writing) in secondary school and university.

- 80-55 Loonen, P.** Functioneel Taalgebruik en het onderwijs. [Functional language and teaching.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), **338/9** (1979), 17-21.

Those concerned with the teaching of modern languages in the Netherlands were presented towards the end of 1977 with an official discussion paper by Van Ek and Groot on the development of a modern-language curriculum. This paper introduced a number of concepts that may not



have been altogether clear to all those to whom it was addressed. The functional/notional approach derives from the Council of Europe's International Working Group set up in 1971. An illustration is given of certain linguistic functions required in connection with a particular situation and it is shown that it is the schematisation of the functional aspect of language use that provided what is new in this approach.

An implication of this approach for the teacher is that he will, in order to teach the functional aspects of a language, need to start from authentic texts. One unsolved problem is that of providing a balance between communicative language and grammar. One solution might be to reverse the traditional order 'structure-drilling – practice in context' in favour of 'communicative practice – derivation of structures – practice (if necessary) with drills'. The problems that need to be solved in the near future are those of arranging material in appropriate order, and systematically compiling grammatical structures with functions.

**80–56 Smit, G.** Verzamelde reacties op een voorstel voor een leerplan voor de moderne vreemde talen op notionele functionele basis. [Reactions to a proposal for a modern-languages curriculum based on a notional/functional approach.] *Levende Talen* (The Hague), 338/9 (1979), 4–16.

Summaries are given of answers to the 16 questions contained in a questionnaire on the proposal for a notional/functional language curriculum in the Netherlands.

While a new curriculum would be welcomed, there was a widely spread fear that it would be imposed from above as a theoretical ideal, towards the formulation of which practising teachers would not have been asked to contribute. Official guidance as to syllabus content would be more welcome than any sort of imposition. There was an almost unanimous suspicion that the implementation of the proposal would result in a reduction of the freedom in didactic and methodological matters at present enjoyed by schools and teachers. Advice and demonstrations would be welcome as long as there was no tampering with teachers' independence.

## COURSE DESIGN

**80–57 Bertrand, Yves.** Remarques sur l'étude des méthodes de langue. [Comments on the study of language-teaching courses.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), 73, 1 (1979), 19–40.

Many constraints restrict the writer's freedom to exploit new angles in language courses. On one side there are the expectations of user institutions, of publishers and of the learning public; on the other the conventionalism in cultural stereotypes and the international uniformity

of consumer societies accord perfectly with the technical production of audio-visual components. Standardisation of language register suits the simplification needed by pupils. Traditional grammatical terminology is still the only one understood by pluringual classes, whatever the writer may use in order to compile material. In sum: general pedagogic requirements span international and ideological frontiers and result in broadly similar linguistic and cultural content.

**80-58 Coste, Daniel.** Quelques remarques sur la notion de situation en linguistique appliquée à la didactique des langues. [Some remarks on the notion of situation in linguistics as applied to teaching languages.] *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 1, 2 (1978), 117-28.

Audio-lingual and audio-visual courses of the 1960s cast their presentations of dialogue in face-to-face interactions in 'typical' situations. But a social situation has no necessary connection with the semantic interpretation of the dialogue it encloses and any definition broader than 'immediate' makes the data unmanageably complex. [Uses of situation in a-l and a-v dialogues.] a-v courses run foul of cross-cultural interferences. Richterich, Council of Europe experts, and Hymes seem ready to re-define 'situation' in more fruitful ways, but current innovators in methodology seem to be avoiding social dimensions. Applied linguistics thus risks abandoning its broad multidisciplinary terms of reference.

**MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT** See abstracts 80-43, -70, -73, -80

## TEACHING METHODS

**80-59 Birckbichler, Diane W. and Omaggio, Alice C.** Diagnosing and responding to individual learner needs. *Modern Language Journal* (St Louis, Mo), 62, 7 (1978), 336-45.

Teachers can respond to the learning needs of individual students in various ways: (1) identify the individual's preferred cognitive style or strategy and design activities to accommodate it; (2) alter the structure of the learning environment to accommodate the learning preferences or styles of the student; or (3) identify the particular learning problem rather than the individual learner. This last approach is developed here.

Various sources of learner problems are identified (such as poor memory, lack of flexibility), and specific remedial activities are suggested for difficulties in speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary learning, and grammar tasks. The activities can be adapted to individual

sessions, or small- or large-group work. They are classified according to the processing demands made upon the learner by the task (e.g. analysis, synthesis of information, flexibility, making inferences, improving memory). The advantages of the approach are its adaptability, ease of preparation, manageability and specificity of purpose. [Examples using English, Spanish and French.]

**80-60 Brumfit, C. J.** Some experimental investigations into language-teaching methodology, and some of their limitations. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), 3, 1 (1977), 45-51.

An attempt is made to list the variables which constrain any teaching situation in order to argue that there are too many of them to make realistic small-scale methodological experiments possible. Educational research often tries to isolate the method from the relationship between the teacher, the class and the language, so that investigations have little contact with realistic situations. Several experimental investigations are discussed briefly and the arguments for small-scale 'laboratory' experiments are explored. Large-scale, crudely designed investigations will have as much statistical validity as small-scale carefully designed ones if they are conducted on a very large scale in typical situations. But results must be related to observations of typical classrooms.

**80-61 Christ, Herbert.** L'enseignement de la civilisation dans le cadre de la classe de langue. [Language and civilisation – their place in the classroom.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), 31 (1978), 78-83.

Study of the culture of the country forms an integral part of the language class. One school of thought, known as *sprachbezogene Landeskunde*, itself the product of a particular philosophy of language, advocates teaching the civilisation through the language. In this approach, the one generally preferred and followed in Germany today, language class and civilisation class are one and the same. The other school of thought, *problemorientierte Landeskunde*, focuses on problems of, and factual information concerning, the target culture; study of language and study of civilisation proceed along separate, though parallel, lines.

Both approaches emphasise the contemporary scene rather than, as was formerly the case, the historical past; the modern tendency is also to avoid what is supposed to be typical of the target country, since this tends to emphasise the exotic and reinforce stereotypes. Three examples of civilisation texts used in secondary schools and university illustrate the preference for themes of wider relevance also applicable to the student's own country.

- 80-62 O'Neill, Robert.** The fine art of asking the right questions. *Praxis des neu sprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 26, 1 (1979), 30-7.

Different types of questions asked by the teacher lead to very different types of output from the learner. Many questions are really expressions of opinion or suggestions. The different functions of questions in teaching are outlined, with examples from English: (1) probes, which nudge the listener into concentrating on what is being said; (2) pre-questions or 'orienters' which orient the listener to significant points before a text is presented; (3) structors, which aim to practise a particular structure; (4) interactors, which generate questions asked by the learner (and not, as is nearly always the case, by the teacher); and (5) leads, or focussers, which give the learner something specific to look for or to force him to some conclusion. Another way of classifying questions is to use notions like High, Mid or Low Order to indicate the cognitive complexity required in the response.

### **BILINGUAL TEACHING** See also abstract 80-46

- 80-63 Gonzalez-Mena LoCoco, Veronica.** Writing skills of grade three co-ordinate and compound bilinguals in a bilingual school. *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics* (New Delhi), 3, 1 (1977), 83-107.

An analysis is given of short stories written in Spanish and in German by co-ordinate and compound bilinguals in a bilingual programme at the third grade level. The method of data collection and analysis is that used earlier by Swain in her study, 'Writing skills of grade three French immersion pupils'. The study makes a qualitative and quantitative comparison of errors made by both groups of Spanish-German bilinguals, and compares these with the bilinguals in Swain's study. These comparisons showed a superiority of co-ordinates over compounds, and of compounds in an immersion programme over compounds in a bilingual programme, with the former group of compounds approximating the co-ordinates on several measures.

### **CLASS METHODS: PRONUNCIATION**

- 80-64 Dickerson, Wayne B.** Language variation in applied linguistics. *ITL* (Louvain), 35 (1977), 43-66.

The use of variability analysis, particularly in the area of phonology, offers insights into language learning, orthographic research, and language teaching. Phonological variability is the presence of alternate renderings of what is a single phonological segment for the language as a whole. The model is described in order to illustrate its extension to

the sound change occurring in the language learner, using data from a Japanese learner of English who recorded word lists, dialogues and free speaking on three occasions over a nine-month period. Variability is found to be central to the mechanism by which the learning of phonology occurs. Progress is made by gradually using more advanced variants in more word-class members. Usage of variants is correlated with the linguistic (and non-linguistic) environment. A variability analysis of spelling is illustrated by using the <aIC> word class, and suggests that to a great extent the patterning of symbols reflects the patterning of the sound system. Implications for teaching are that a sound should be taught first in its non-variable environments [use of target and range drills]. All variability in the standard language should be recognised and accepted.

**80–65 Gutknecht, Christoph.** Intonation and language learning: the necessity for an integrative approach. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (Bloomington, Ind), 1, 2 (1978), 25–36.

The function of intonation in the teaching of English is only vaguely defined in German curricula, textbooks and methodological works. Incorrect intonation is a decisive component in communication, so is considered more important than correct production of individual sounds. Its main function is to delineate information structures – to chop up the stream of speech into message units with a coherent internal structure. The message unit is characterised by a simple, complex or compound tone, and is rarely determined by grammar or is syntactically distinctive. There are no clear-cut rules as to where tone unit boundaries are possible or should ideally be placed.

From the point of view of teaching, division into message units and tone units could be helpful. It would also be useful if pitch movements could not only be systematised syntagmatically and paradigmatically, but if the systemisation could include semantic information; but unfortunately the manner in which pitch movement carries semantic information is not known. [Discussion of the direction of movement of the nucleus.]

The description of intonation problems requires consideration of all other aspects of language and language use. The teaching of intonation is important at all levels.

**LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES** *See also abstracts 80–82, –85*

- 80–66** **Harding, E.** Qu'est-ce que les langues de spécialité ont de si spécial? [What's so special about languages for special purposes?] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1978, 69–79.

This paper investigates the notion of language for special purposes and discusses it from the point of view of reading comprehension and its pedagogical implications. The meanings, connotations and inadequacies of the terms '*langue de spécialité*' and 'language for special purposes' are discussed. A distinction is made between students learning a foreign language as they learn new subject matter and students learning a foreign language when they are already familiar with the subject matter. A reading comprehension course is described and as a result, a new emphasis is put upon the cognitive field of a discipline rather than on the language pertaining to it. Finally, a distinction is drawn between two types of reading: a 'poorer' one with only surface understanding of the facts and opinions exposed and a richer one where the reader grasps all the implications and connotations present in the original literature.

- 80–67** **Stummhöfer, Hans-Joachim.** Das fachsprachliche Kommentieren. Erfahrungen und Überlegungen zur Weiterentwicklung des produktiven Sprechens im Fortgeschrittenenunterricht. [Participation in specialist and technical discussions. Empirical knowledge and theoretical considerations relating to the development of productive skills in advanced language courses.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 6 (1978), 334–8.

There have so far been few attempts by foreign-language teachers to develop a systematic approach towards the problem of enabling students to discuss scientific, technical and other specialist subjects. Present teaching methods tend to restrict classroom discussions to stilted, teacher-centred question-and-answer sessions. The opportunities for interaction between students are limited, and the unreal nature of the communication means that little interest or enthusiasm is aroused in the participants. Whilst there is a place for rigid question and answer activities, it should be possible for the student to progress beyond this point to a stage where he can take part in spontaneous conversation.

The achievement of this goal presupposes thorough and methodical preparation. In particular, the student must become familiar with the requisite vocabulary, as well as mastering the necessary linguistic structures. [Suggestions for preparatory activities.] The teacher's aim should be to enable the student to communicate fluently and intelligibly, if not necessarily always linguistically correctly, to express accurately what he wishes to convey and to elicit the information he requires.

**READING** See also abstracts 80–66, –77,–82

- 80–68 Lesgold, Alan M. and Perfetti, Charles A.** Interactive processes in reading comprehension. *Discourse Processes* (Norwood, NJ), 1, 4 (1978), 323–36.

Comprehension during reading involves higher-order processing of discourse structure and the reader's knowledge in interaction with lower-level word coding processes. The interactions between these 'top-down' and 'bottom-up' processes must be taken into account in models of comprehension. Word coding and sentence comprehension processes must be executed fast enough to sustain active text memories. It is argued that memory de-activation due to breakdowns in the synchrony of coding and comprehension subcomponents is a major source of individual skill differences in reading comprehension. Evidence which supports this hypothesis is reviewed: (1) Less skilled readers show slower or less accurate performance on certain verbal processing tasks. (2) Such less skilled readers do not necessarily have deficient general short-term memory capacity. (3) Normal reading is disrupted by relatively minor interferences with coding processes. (4) The availability of relevant memories is necessary for efficient comprehension of sentences. These facts are consistent with a time-sharing model of process interactions that assumes that memories relevant for comprehension are vulnerable to deactivation when coding processes are inefficient.

- 80–69 Moon, Cliff and Wells, Gordon.** The influence of home on learning to read. *Journal of Research in Reading* (Leeds), 2, 1 (1979), 53–62.

Large-scale investigations into home variables and educational success frequently demonstrate relationships between global factors such as socio-economic status, education of parents, etc., and general educational achievement, of which attainment in reading is often taken as an index. This paper reports a small but detailed study of home influences on the early stages of learning to read within the context of the Bristol Longitudinal Language Development Research Programme. Data were derived from three sources: interviews with the parents when the children were aged 5 and 7 years; regular recordings of spontaneous conversation at home between 3½ and 5 years; assessments of reading at 5 and 7 years. Attainment in reading at age 7 was found to be strongly predicted by knowledge of literacy on entry to school, and this in turn to be predicted by parental interest in literacy and quality of verbal interaction with the child in the pre-school years. The child's own pre-school interest in literacy was not found to be strongly associated with later success. The significance of these findings is discussed.

**COMMUNICATION** See also abstracts 80–53, –67, –73, –80

- 80–70 Gremmo, M. J.** Apprendre à communiquer: compte rendu d'une expérience d'enseignement du français. [Learning to communicate: an account of an experiment in French teaching.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1978, 17–52.

Communicative competence is now at the crucial point where theory must be translated into practice, that is to say where the functional approach must be developed into pedagogical content and strategies. This article analyses the drawbacks of the three main pedagogical approaches: the structural, situational and functional approaches, and presents some of the principles underlying the pedagogical applications of the concepts of communicative competence. It then describes and discusses an experiment in methodology and materials putting these principles into practice in order to teach oral expression in a summer course in French. In this experiment, the three pedagogical approaches were combined to reach better efficiency in the learning/teaching process. The analysis of comments by both learners and teachers points to new directions for research in the field of communicative competence.

- 80–71 Wulf, Herwig.** 'They can die.' – 'Very good.' Zur Sprache des Lehrers im modernen Fremdsprachenunterricht. ['They can die.' – 'Very good.' On the language of the teacher in modern foreign-language teaching.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 25, 4 (1978), 364–72.

Modern foreign-language teaching lays increasing stress on oral competence and the ability to communicate naturally in a conversational situation. If this aim is to be achieved, the linguistic model presented by the teacher is of prime importance, and there are many ways in which his or her performance can be improved. The introduction of a greater variety of teacher responses will both hold the pupils' interest and help to increase their oral repertoire. Language laboratory exercises have been developed which aim to improve the ability of student teachers to make spontaneous oral statements. Responses which would be absurd or impossible in any real conversational situation may occur because of the teacher's lack of belief in the reality of the communication taking place, and this can be rectified by the teacher becoming more involved in the subject matter of teacher/pupil exchanges and by ensuring that these are not only linguistically accurate, but also meaningful. In addition, situations which occur spontaneously within the classroom could be more fully exploited for their language teaching potential. [Detailed examples and suggestions.]

The achievement of competent and natural communication between



teacher and pupil presupposes a high level of oral competence on the part of the teacher, which can only be reached by spending lengthy periods in the appropriate country.

**WRITING** See abstracts 80–20, –77

**COMPREHENSION** See also abstract 80–54

**80–72 Brockhaus, Wilhelm.** Plädoyer für das Zuhören im Fremdsprachenunterricht. [A plea for listening in foreign-language teaching.] *Praxis des neusprachlichen Unterrichts* (Dortmund), 26, 1 (1979), 3–12.

In recent years research into language teaching has tended to stress the importance of aiming to teach pupils to use language as a means of instantaneous oral communication. This aim, although laudable, tends to make the old mistake of assuming that the processes involved in learning one's mother tongue and in learning a foreign language are similar. This is not so. In the case of one's mother tongue, learning and application take place simultaneously as one integrated process, whereas in the case of a foreign language these can be clearly identified as two separate phases. The initial learning phase is concerned with the formation of speech habits by continual repetition of words, phrases and grammatical structures so that their use becomes completely automatic and unconscious. Only when this has been achieved is the student able to progress to the stage where he is able to apply these habits and to use language as a means of self expression.

It is in the separation of these two phases that problems occur, and these are more acute in the case of the less able student, for whom the learning phase will be more lengthy. The student becomes bored with the continual drills and repetitive exercises and at the same time frustrated by his inability to express himself in the foreign language. Listening can play an important role in overcoming these problems in that it enables the student to proceed to the application stage long before he has acquired the ability to use the language actively. A teacher can, even at an early stage, give his pupils every opportunity to listen to the language used in a variety of contexts and thus maintain their interest and increase their confidence in their ability to use the language. [Examples of activities and techniques.]

## SELF-INSTRUCTION

- 80-73 Abe, D. and others.** Apprentissage de l'expression orale en autonomie. Implications de l'approche fonctionnelle. [The autonomous learning of oral expression. Implications of the functional approach.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1978, 1-14.

Within the CRAPEL autonomous learning scheme, modular material is being developed for communicative oral expression. The purpose of this material is twofold: (a) To enable the learner to define his own needs in communicative terms, i.e. to analyse his situation in such terms as: what communicative acts are needed in a given situation, what are the relationships between the speakers, what are the necessary modulations? (b) To give the learner material that will fit his needs.

The modules now being experimented with are based on communicative exchanges. The exchange is analysed in L1 before the linguistic and paralinguistic features of the same exchange in L2 are introduced. The choice of material is fairly wide so that the learner can select what he needs to learn. He can then decide how he will learn it and how to assess his performance.

- 80-74 Riley, P. and Sicre, M.** Une expérience d'auto-enseignement de groupe. [An experiment in self-directed group learning.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1978, 141-58.

This article discusses the principles and organisation of a group learning scheme involving approximately 100 members of the *Université du Troisième Age*. Although the CRAPEL provided the necessary infrastructure, the working sessions were carried out without teachers, the learners themselves being responsible for management decisions concerning group membership, choice of material and study techniques. First results are encouraging and show that the principles of self-directed learning can be adapted to group work.

IMMIGRANTS *See abstracts 80-12, -80*

**ENGLISH** *See also abstracts 80-46, -49, -51/2, -54, -59, -62, -64/5, -73/4*

- 80-75 Celce-Murcia, Marianne.** Integrating group work with the teaching of grammar. *Workpapers in Teaching English as a Second Language* (Los Angeles, Calif), 12 (1978), 41-6.

A step-by-step procedure is given for teaching grammar by means of group work in classes for academically oriented students at the high-

intermediate or advanced level. [Examples.] It is stressed that group work must be one of several learning situations; it must be carefully paced and time specified in advance for completing the tasks. Most students enjoy an interactional approach and show marked improvement. The teacher corrects fewer exercises. The procedure described here can be used to teach other common grammatical problems.

**80-76 Darian, Steven.** The role of redundancy in language and language teaching. *System* (Linköping, Sweden), 7, 1 (1979), 47-59.

Redundancy exists at all levels of language: from phonemes and spelling, words and affixes, through syntax, semantics and discourse. It exists in the reciprocity of linguistic, kinesic, and situational channels of communication. The paper illustrates the operation of redundancy at the various levels and in different communication channels. It examines the significance of redundancy in language learning and offers several exercises that help students develop the ability to utilise redundancy in learning a foreign language.

**80-77 Povey, John.** Language and education in South African primary schools. *Workpapers in Teaching English as a Second Language* (Los Angeles, Calif), 12 (1978), 97-105.

Research carried out at the Institute for the Study of English in Africa at Rhodes University, Grahamstown, is described, on the role of English in African education, particularly in the Bantustans, or 'homelands'. Blacks using English outnumber native English speakers in the Republic; English is essential for progress within the national system, as well as being the lingua franca of most of the surrounding territories. Initial research in 1975 on literacy skills provided dismal proof of the inferiority of existing methods of teaching English. It was decided to make the main thrust of the work at the lower primary level, where it would have most effect. The root of the problem was neglect of the role of the mother tongue, particularly in reading. The oral-aural method of teaching was found to have serious disadvantages. The new approach concentrated on the teaching of writing and reading [details of the adaptation of *Breakthrough to Literacy* materials]. After a successful period of experimentation, it was decided to adopt the new method in the schools in the Transkei.

**FRENCH** See also abstracts 80–44, –59, –61

**80–78 Calvet, Louis-Jean.** Le français d'Afrique et l'enseignement du français en Afrique. [African French and the teaching of French in Africa.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **138** (1978), 29–42.

Recent studies reflect a growing interest in African French. Innovations in vocabulary relate to distinctive aspects of the African scene. Interference from African languages occurs frequently but there are also cases of genuine creativity in the formation of new words by analogy with existing French words. The type of French spoken appears unrelated to the existence or otherwise of a local lingua franca. French in Africa is also influenced by being the language of bureaucracy and officialdom. It should not be forgotten that French is a foreign language for children entering school and requires appropriate teaching.

The hostile and rigid attitudes of many teachers and educationists towards this new popular French are to be deplored. African French should be accepted and made use of in the schools and its innovations welcomed as a sign that Africans are making the language their own.

**80–79 Meara, Paul.** Learners' word associations in French. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin* (Utrecht), **3**, 2 (1978), 192–211.

Normal adults produce two main types of association when given a word test: syntagmatic and paradigmatic associations. The former associations complete a phrase (e.g. *brush/teeth*); in the latter, the stimulus evokes a response which belongs to the same part of speech, and largely shares the same meaning (e.g. *man/woman, tree/bush*). Normal adults tend to produce more paradigmatic responses; young children more syntagmatic responses.

The associations reported here are those of 76 girls preparing French O-level in two London comprehensive schools. [Tables of results.] Results were divided into three main categories: (1) primary responses which are the same as those reported for native French speakers; (2) words which are not the normal primary responses of French speakers, but which are nevertheless normal for native Francophones, and (3) responses not normally made by French speakers.

The third category – sound ('clang') associations – was surprisingly large. The data suggests that the learner's mental dictionary is less well organised semantically than the native speaker's, hence the difficulty that learners have in processing both written and spoken FL material. But, on the other hand, all learners may go through a phase when their FL lexicon is organised non-semantically, then reorganises later on. More knowledge of how learners acquire vocabulary is needed.

- 80–80** **Pieron, C.** Français fonctionnel et travailleurs étrangers: expériences d'oral avec des débutants. [Functional French and foreign workers: oral work with beginners.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1978, 105–38.

This article is written with instructors of groups of foreign workers in mind. It takes as its starting point two modules for teaching French ('the highway code at driving school' and 'starting and keeping small talk going') and uses them to exemplify some of the difficulties involved in the development and classroom use of pedagogical materials based on the pragmalinguistic concept of communicative competence. These difficulties include: the role of the structural component in a functional course; problems posed by notional analysis in a cross-cultural situation; difficulties related to pedagogical choices (such as team teaching and simulation procedures), to the type of learners (their ideas about language, language learning and situational needs) and the use of authentic documents. [Discussion of the results achieved by the learners in a real life situation.]

**GERMAN** See also abstract 80–67

- 80–81** **Myrkin, V. Ya.** Некоторые вопросы грамматического времени в немецком языке. [Some questions concerning grammatical tense in German.] *Иносранные языку в школе* (Moscow), 3 (1979), 11–16.

Some questions arising in recent work on the temporal system of the verb in modern German are reviewed. The traditional scheme [table] is shown to be deficient both from a theoretical and a factual point of view. An alternative scheme is proposed [table], much less satisfactory from the point of view of symmetry but closer to the facts of usage.

Among topics raised in the discussion, this article concentrates on the conditions of occurrence of certain tense forms and restrictions on them. Both the Future I and the Present are commonly used to mean future time. Explanations of the difference in terms of modality, aspectuality and context of use are found wanting. As for the functioning of the Perfect alongside the Imperfect to express actions in the past, there appears to be no aspectual alternation. On the question of the introduction of a Perfect tense verb into a narrative in the Imperfect, it is suggested that Weinreich's distinction between *die besprochene Welt* (Perfect) and *die erzählte Welt* (Imperfect) is relevant.

Hard and fast rules should not be made for the use of the tense forms discussed in spoken language, and even in written language it is much less strictly regulated than most grammars suggest. Linguists must improve the description of the temporal system of the verb in German and teachers should show greater tolerance of possible variations of use.

- 80–82 Seltmann, Wolfgang.** Zur Effektivierung des fachbezogenen Lesens. [Towards more effective reading of specialist literature.] *Deutsche als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), 15, 6 (1978), 324–31.

For foreigners preparing to study in the DDR or for those wishing to follow the development of their subject in East Germany, the ability to read specialist literature in German is essential, and constitutes an important goal in their study of the language. As the number of scientific and technical publications continues to grow, it becomes increasingly important for the specialist to learn to read effectively in order to extract the maximum amount of information in the shortest possible time and with the minimum of effort.

The achievement of this aim depends largely on a structured and methodical approach to the study of specialist texts. The first stage involves the rapid initial scanning of the text in order to ascertain the central theme, the aims and intentions of the author and the relevance of the text for the reader. Subsequent stages aim to enable the student to penetrate deeper into the text to examine its semantic and grammatical structure in detail, thereby increasing his awareness of the logical and thematic relationships within it. [Detailed examples of techniques to be adopted.]

**SPANISH** See also abstract 80–59

- 80–83 Vanden Eynden, Michele and Ledesma Zamara, Elmo.** La enseñanza de una segunda lengua en un país plurilingüe: implicaciones metodológicas. [Second-language teaching in a plurilingual country: some methodological implications.] *Boletín de la Asociación Europea de Profesores de Español* (Madrid), 11, 19 (1978), 49–55.

The requirements of Peru are analysed in terms of a need to establish a universal official language (Spanish); of the need to respect the roles of indigenous languages and the differences between the communities they represent; and of difficulties of resources and teaching personnel. Much of the sophistication of teaching programmes is left to the discretion of the teacher on the spot, sensitive to local needs. Priority is given in teaching Spanish to primary school children; and linguistic priority is given to the lexicon and syntax over pronunciation, although the teaching mode is largely oral, and as far as possible in Spanish.

## RUSSIAN

- 80–84 Deribas, L. A.** Употребление союзов 'что' и 'чтобы'. [The use of the conjunctions 'что' and 'чтобы'] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 5 (1978), 23–34.

The conjunctions *что* and *чтобы* are widely used in various structures. *чтобы* in particular causes difficulty to learners and needs special attention. (1) Both conjunctions are used with certain classes of words which require expansion – verbs of speaking, thinking, perceiving, etc., and words which indicate a qualitative state or judgement (*странно, хорошо*, etc.). (2) *Чтобы* is used in subordinate clauses of purpose (which may precede the main clause). Also under this heading is discussed use of the conjunction in phrases expressing quantity (*у меня достаточно времени, чтобы написать доклад* etc.). (3) *Уто* and *чтобы* are used after demonstrative words and expressions, like *так, такой, настолько, до такой степени, до того*.

[Exercises on each type, with key.]

- 80–85 Гапочка, I. K.** Обучение чтению. [Teaching reading.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 4 (1978), 37–43.

Proper mastery of reading in Russian involves the ability to read in different ways according to purpose and information value [diagramme]. The article concentrates on study-reading – thoughtful, intensive reading for the purposes of understanding, remembering and reproducing information – which requires the ability to sort out lexico-grammatical material, understand unknown words and syntactic structures and also to work out the logico-semantic and compositional structure of the text.

The article proposes a series of exercises on short scientific texts (biology). These are preceded by a short text with questions (yes/no) and instructions on how to work out one's own 'comprehension coefficient' (to be compared with a suggested grading 'unsatisfactory' to 'excellent'). The exercises can then be used to improve one's 'coefficient'. They are divided into: 'pre-text' (meaning of words, government, distinguishing near-synonyms, word derivation, picking out main clause from a complex sentence, its most important information etc.); 'text' (paying attention to paragraph structure and how sentences are linked, dividing a passage into paragraphs, determining whether passages are complete); 'post-text' ('multi-choice' questions, liking sentences so that they correspond to the sense of the passage); and 'exercises in preparation for reproducing the text' (simplifying complex syntactic structures, abbreviating passages, stating the main theme, summarising). [A key to the exercises is provided.]

**80–86 Vyatyutnev, M. N.** Легкость/трудность в стратегии усвоения русского языка как иностранного. [Ease/difficulty in the strategy for learning Russian as a foreign language.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), 3 (1978), 45–52.

A teaching strategy presupposes some assumptions about the nature of learning. What individual students find easy or difficult is a subjective matter, whereas the notion of linguistic simplicity/complexity is objective and measurable. In practice, the linguistically simple tends to be easy, and the complex difficult. This and similarly uncontroversial areas are explored as the author tries to identify language learning problems, using a basically psychological approach. Listening and speaking are more difficult than reading; abstract grammatical study is usually found difficult; the study of a language closely related to one's own is not wholly easy; the problems arising at early and advanced stages in language learning differ in quantity and quality. The role of the native language in the learning of Russian is discussed, as well as the question of positive and negative transfer. Factors that facilitate or impede the learning of Russian are listed. The simplification of teaching texts is ultimately futile: students should face up to the real thing immediately, otherwise they will never develop the flexibility of response that is required when conversing with a native speaker.